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EUROPE
IN THE XIXTH CENTURY
1802-1914

EUROPE IN THE XIXTH CENTURY

1802-1914

BY

E. NIXON

—
AND

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PREFACE

THIS volume has been specially prepared to meet the requirements of the Oxford and Cambridge Examining Boards and the Board of Education. The Chapters form a consecutive history chronologically arranged, and cover the period from the Treaty of Amiens, 1802, to the opening of the Great War, 1914. Each country is treated as part of the European whole.

It is obvious that so much matter, in so small compass, can only be dealt with in outline, and that many details of secondary importance must be omitted. A number of small corrections have been made in this edition, and it is hoped that the book, so far as it goes, may be a useful and encouraging guide to a more thorough study of the period.

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EUROPE IN THE XIXTH CENTURY 1802-1914

CHAPTER I

NAPOLEON AS EMPEROR

THE leading figure in Europe at the opening of the nineteenth century was Napoleon Bonaparte, who, beginning his career as an artillery subaltern, was finally acknowledged to be the greatest general Europe had ever seen. He had already made great conquests for France, and his ambition was by no means satisfied when, in 1802, he agreed to the Treaty of Amiens which gave peace to Europe from the wars that followed the French Revolution. By its terms Napoleon acquiesced in the defeat of all his designs in Egypt and the East, and promised to retire from Italy, leaving the republics he had established on its borders to themselves, while England engaged to give up her newly conquered foreign possessions, with the exception of Ceylon, and to restore the Knights of St. John in Malta. This settlement did not promise lasting peace, for it left England restless and anxious on account of the enormous ascendancy of the French power.

in Europe, and at the same time failed to satisfy Bonaparte's ambition. The latter, who was now thirty-three years of age, possessed prodigious powers of mind under complete control. "Everything in my head," he used to say, "is pigeon-holed; when I want to leave one matter and turn to another, I have only to shut one drawer and open another." His passion for power and glory was so great that Europe seemed to him too small a field, and he regretted that he had not lived in those ancient times when "Alexander, having conquered Asia, announced himself to the people as son of Jupiter and was believed by all the East." He could not bear to share his power with anyone; he would have no officials under him who were not entirely submissive to his will, and towards the end of his career he really governed the half of Europe alone. That he was able to accomplish this was owing to his marvellous powers of work. "Work is my element," said he, and often he worked eighteen hours a day, practically without rest. A strong France was necessary to him to carry out his ambitious schemes, and he had already begun his work of reorganising and reconstructing the government. France was then almost in a state of anarchy; industry and commerce were nearly ruined; taxes were not paid; invalids were dying of hunger in the hospitals; conscripts were refusing to rejoin their regiments, and there was a general feeling of indifference to the affairs of the nation. After ten years of revolutionary government, France longed above all for order, for security, and for internal tranquillity.

restored, and it was now clear that Napoleon meant to restore the monarchy in his own person in some shape or form, and in 1804 he took advantage of the discovery of a royalist plot to strengthen his position by assuming the title of Emperor.

The peace gained by the Treaty of Amiens lasted little more than a year. France had become unnaturally strong and Napoleon was making no secret of further ambitious projects. The rupture with England finally took place over the vexed question of Malta, which the English still retained, in spite of the treaty, as a safeguard against Napoleon's scarcely veiled intention of again occupying Egypt, and war was declared in May 1803. But Napoleon was not satisfied to have England as his sole enemy; by his annexation of Piedmont and his occupation of the Neapolitan forts and of the Swiss Republic, by his insolent behaviour to the Tsar and by the murder of the Duke d'Enghien, he brought about a European coalition, and in 1805 Russia, Austria, Sweden and England were arrayed against him.

Between the years 1803 and 1805 Napoleon was engaged in collecting transports and making preparations for an invasion of England. By combining the Spanish with the French fleet, he trusted to destroy the English Channel Squadron and move his troops across in safety. He hoped all would be ready for the attack by 1805. While still awaiting the arrival of his admiral, Villeneuve, in the Channel, he himself marched against the Austrians, and by dint of skilful manœuvring compelled the capitulation of a large force under General

Mack at Ulm, October 17, 1805. Only four days later, the defeat of the French and Spanish fleets by Nelson at Trafalgar, off the coast of Spain, put an end, at any rate for a time, to the idea of an invasion of England. The Emperor meanwhile continued his victorious course, occupied Vienna without resistance, and advanced against the united armies of Austria and Russia, which he completely defeated at the battle of Austerlitz, December 2, 1805. So great a blow was this to the Allies that the mere report of it hastened the death of the great English Prime Minister, William Pitt. The historical importance of the battle was great, not merely because it led to the states of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, which had fought on Napoleon's side, being raised into kingdoms, and to the union of many of the minor German states under the protectorate of Napoleon, with the name of the Confederation of the Rhine, but because it put an end to the Holy Roman Empire founded by Otto the Great in 962. In 1806 the Emperor of Austria (he had assumed this title in 1804), solemnly abdicated the title of Roman Emperor, and the dissolution of the ancient Diet of Ratisbon naturally followed.

Austria was compelled to sue for peace, and the Treaty of Pressburg was concluded December 26, 1805. Shortly after, Napoleon gave the crown of Naples to his brother Joseph and formed the Dutch Republic into a kingdom for his second brother, Louis. The Electorate of Hanover, which Napoleon had seized at the beginning of the war, was given to Prussia, and Venice was annexed to the

kingdom he had already established in Italy. He added Istria and Dalmatia to the French Empire in order to secure access to the East, and divided Suabia and the Tyrol between Wurtemberg and Bavaria.

CHAPTER II

NAPOLEON AT JENA AND FRIEDLAND AND IN THE SPANISH PENINSULA

1806-1809

NEITHER Russia nor England had joined Austria in concluding peace after the battle of Austerlitz, and Napoleon, suspecting Prussia, who had already changed sides half a dozen times, of an intention to join these Powers in a new attack upon France, determined to take the offensive. Prussia could not immediately get help either from Russia or England, while French armies were already stationed in Bavaria and Suabia, whence they could in a few days be brought on the scene of action. Placing himself at their head Napoleon marched upon the Prussian lines of communication with the Elbe and defeated one column at Jena, while on the same day the second column was defeated by Davout, one of his marshals, at Auerstädt, October 14, 1806. The retreating Prussians were vigorously pursued, compelled to surrender with arms and baggage, and Napoleon entered Berlin.

Master now of the North Sea and the Baltic, Napoleon turned his attention to dealing a decisive

blow at England. The latter had already set the example of waging an economic war by proclaiming a fictitious blockade of the ports between Brest and Hamburg, thus closing them to the ships of neutral Powers. Napoleon retaliated by the Berlin Decrees, November 1806, which declared a blockade against the British Isles and forbade all commercial relations with them; this is generally known as the Continental Blockade, or System. To make this blockade effective the adherence of Russia was necessary; Russia therefore must be brought to submission. The campaign in Prussia had lasted less than a month, that in Poland lasted for seven. In those immense plains Napoleon had difficulty in getting provisions for his army and forage for his horses. The absence of good roads, the difficulty of threading their way through the marshes, the terrible winter weather, all prevented rapid movement. The Russians too offered an obstinate resistance: "We have to kill them twice," said the French soldiers. Napoleon thought to surprise them at Eylau, but it was himself who was surprised, and though he remained master of the battle-field, it was a fruitless victory, February 1807. After this bloody action he was obliged to wait for the spring to renew the war; then at length he succeeded in crushing the Russians in the decisive battle of Friedland, June 1807. The Tsar was obliged to treat for peace. The two emperors met on a raft in the middle of the Niemen, near Tilsit, and terms were arranged July 8, 1807. This peace was made almost entirely at the expense of Prussia, and 'converted' her, from being the most

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friendly to France of all the Great Powers, into her bitterest enemy. She lost Hanover and all that she possessed on the left bank of the Elbe, and all that she had taken from Poland in the course of its three partitions. This Treaty of Tilsit included an alliance offensive and defensive between Napoleon and Alexander, by which Alexander agreed to recognise all the changes made by Napoleon in the map of Europe and promised, if England refused his mediation, to join Napoleon against her, while Napoleon on his part promised the same with regard to Turkey, then at war with Russia. The two emperors thus planned to divide Europe between them.

Napoleon disposed of his newly acquired territories by creating the kingdom of Westphalia between the Elbe and the Rhine, and by enlarging the electorate of Saxony and turning it into a kingdom. He urged the Tsar to seize Finland in order to bring pressure to bear on Sweden, who remained faithful to the English alliance and refused to be brought into the continental system. To complete the blockade he required Denmark to declare war on England, but here England interfered with desperate resolution, and called on Denmark to surrender her fleet, promising to restore it at the end of the war; on receiving a refusal she bombarded Copenhagen and carried off the fleet and all stores into British ports.

A little later Napoleon annexed the States of the Church because the Pope refused to apply the continental system with sufficient rigour, and Portugal also proving refractory Napoleon occupied

Lisbon, driving its royal family to take refuge in its American colony of Brazil. It was to ensure the complete application of the blockade that he finally entered on his criminal and disastrous enterprise against Spain. In defiance of all treaties Napoléon took advantage of his position in Portugal to concentrate a large number of troops in Spain, and to take possession of a number of Spanish fortresses; then, when all was ready, Murat was appointed to the army in Spain and marched on Madrid, March 1808. At that moment a tumult broke out at Aranjuez, one of the royal residences, against Godoy, the worthless favourite and minister of the King and Queen. The feeble King Charles IV immediately abdicated, and his son Ferdinand was proclaimed king by the Spaniards with great enthusiasm. But Murat, who had now arrived in Madrid, persuaded Charles to protest that *his* abdication had been gained by force and to demand the protection of Napoleon. At the same time he induced Ferdinand to go to Napoleon at Bayonne to obtain his recognition of his accession. On his arrival there he was immediately imprisoned. The terrified Charles was induced, in his turn also, to go to Bayonne and to abdicate, both in his own name and that of his children, in favour of his "friend the great Napoleon." Joseph was now made King of Spain, Murat replacing him on the throne of Naples. All Spain rose against these high-handed proceedings. The war was like nothing that Napoleon had before encountered; so far he had met only professional armies; the determined insurrection of a whole nation of eleven millions was a new

experience to him. Every peasant was not only a patriotic but a religious fanatic, for, against Napoleon, who was now holding the Pope a prisoner, the Spanish clergy preached a veritable crusade. "Who are the French?" the children were taught in their catechism. "Aforetime Christians, now heretics." "Is it a sin to put a Frenchman to death?" "No, we gain heaven by killing one of those heretic dogs." At the very beginning of the war the French army met with a check, Dupont with 20,000 men surrendering at Baylen in Andalusia to the Spanish general Castaños, July 1808. The following month an English army landed in Portugal, defeated the French general Junot at Vimiera, and forced him to sign the Convention of Cintra, by which he agreed to evacuate that country. Napoleon determined to take the command in Spain himself, but before doing so revived the memory of Tilsit by a meeting with the Tsar at Erfurt, where professions of friendship were renewed, but where Napoleon failed to induce the Tsar "to show his teeth" to the Austrians. He then hastened to Spain. His armies met with one success after another, and by December 1808 he was in Madrid, where he made a somewhat belated endeavour to conciliate liberal feeling in Europe by the abolition of the Inquisition and of feudalism. Napoleon remained in Madrid till the middle of January 1809. His further advance was stayed by the splendid action of Sir John Moore, who at the head of an English force boldly advanced from Portugal into the middle of Spain to strike at Napoleon's lines of communication. Napoleon at once "turned in pursuit from

Madrid and Marshal Soult from the Carrion, but Moore effected a masterly retreat before them, and at Astorga Napoleon received news that compelled his return to France, and the pursuit was left to Soult. Moore succeeded in withdrawing his troops to Corunna, but he fell in the final engagement that protected their embarkation.

It was news of trouble with Austria that had required the Emperor's presence in Paris. Austria, finding the position in which Napoleon had left her after the Treaty of Pressburg intolerable, had seized the opportunity of his absence in Spain to declare war. Napoleon hastened to the scene of action, defeated the Austrians under the Archduke Charles, and entered Vienna, May 1809. To complete the rout of the Archduke he then attempted the passage of the Danube and fought the battle of Essling, in which the village was taken and retaken nine times. Five weeks passed before Napoleon was able to retrieve this check, and it was during this period that the peasant hero Hofer made his glorious attempt to defend the Tyrol from the French and Bavarian armies. Napoleon, having then effected a junction with fresh troops from Italy, took advantage of a violent storm to throw his army across the Danube, and after a fierce battle of two days' duration defeated the Archduke on the plain of Wagram in full view of Vienna, July 6, 1809. A few days later an armistice was concluded and was followed by a definite treaty of peace at Vienna, October 14, 1809, by which the French Empire gained Illyria; the unfortunate Tyrolese were again given over to their hated foe Bavaria, and Austria's share

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of Poland was given to Russia. Napoleon had again conquered, but he had conquered with difficulty; his aggressions had aroused a new spirit in Europe; he was now confronted by the determined opposition of the peoples. "To kill you is not a crime; it is a duty," was the reply made to him by a Saxon student who had tried to stab him on the eve of the Treaty of Vienna.

CHAPTER III

NAPOLEON AND RUSSIA

NAPOLEON now seemed at the height of his power. He was Emperor of the French, and his empire stretched from Rome to Hamburg, while beyond the Adriatic he was master of the Illyrian provinces; either directly, or through vassal kings, he ruled over more than seventy million men, half the population of Europe at that time. He had for allies, either voluntary or forced, the Tsar of Russia, the Emperor of Austria, the King of Prussia and the King of Denmark. Sweden had at last joined his blockade, and was about to choose, as heir to the throne, Bernadotte, a marshal of France. The pride of the proudest dynasty of Europe was soon to bend before his will. Having divorced the Empress Josephine, Napoleon demanded from Francis the hand of his daughter the Archduchess Marie Louise, and was not refused.

But already in Spain his position had been threatened by that national uprising of the peoples that was to be his ruin. Soult had failed in reconquering Portugal, while at Talavera King Joseph nearly suffered defeat at the hands of Sir Arthur Wellesley. Though Wellesley was obliged to retire

for a time behind the famous lines of Torres Vedras, he was able in 1811 to resume the offensive and to drive the French out of Portugal.

Napoleon apparently considered English operations in the Peninsula at this time as of little importance; he would defeat England, and then these must necessarily fail, and England, he thought, would soon be crushed by his continental system. But to make this thoroughly effective he was led to further annexations, as only his own officials could be trusted to carry it into effect. He added Holland to the French Empire on his brother Louis's refusal to ruin his subjects by the strict application of the blockade. During the years 1810-1811 he continued his annexations along the northern sea-coast of Europe, where lay the chief interests of Russia, for on its trade in corn the incomes of the Russian nobility depended. In pressing his hostility to England, Napoleon broke the alliance of Tilsit; for he called on Alexander to keep his treaty obligations and enforce the blockade, and when he failed to do so, Napoleon annexed the Grand Duchy of Oldenburg. Alexander was alarmed, and spent the next year in making his preparations for the struggle; and war with France meant, sooner or later, alliance with England. Turkey, alarmed at the schemes of partition ventilated at Tilsit, was ready to remain neutral. Bernadotte, now Crown Prince of Sweden, hoping to strengthen his position in his adopted country by obtaining compensation for it for the loss of Finland, offered his alliance to whichever country would give him Norway. Against Russia, Sweden and England, Napoleon arrayed the forces

of France, Italy and Germany, and hoped to win, as usual, by rapid movement and overwhelming force. In May 1812 he was at Dresden, where for the last time he appeared as "King of kings," the Emperor of Austria, the King of Prussia and a multitude of German sovereigns paying court to him. On June 24 he passed the Niemen at Kovno, the Russians making no attempt to prevent his passage. The Tsar had determined to avoid pitched battles, and to leave the defence to "the weather, the desert, and the climate." The success of these tactics was apparent when, five days after the passage of the Niemen, Napoleon arrived at Vilna, his troops already without bread. The Russians kept retreating before him, and not till he reached Borodino did he succeed in bringing about an engagement. The battle ended in victory, but a victory of little value for the French—the Russians retiring in good order, and ready to renew the struggle. Napoleon entered Moscow and awaited overtures from Alexander. But Alexander refused to negotiate, and the day after the French occupation fires broke out in the city and the larger part was destroyed. Napoleon realised the difficulties of his position; he could not bring Alexander to treat for terms of peace, and, dreading the effect in Europe of such a step, he could not make up his mind to retreat. He wasted five precious weeks in indecision, and it was only with the first frosts that he decided to leave. The retreat lasted more than six weeks, and took place over a country already exhausted by the French advance, and during the horrors of an unusually severe winter, when cold

killed even the crows in their flight, while the troops were harassed by the Russians in their rear and hordes of Cossacks on their flanks. A horde of ragged, starving men was all that remained of the Grand Army when Vilna was again reached. In spite of their weakness and suffering, the French forced the passage of the Beresina, in the face of hostile Russian armies, and recrossed the Niemen at Kovno, December 10; but about half a million men had perished or disappeared.

Napoleon's disaster in Russia was the beginning of the end; all the conquered nations of Europe were stirred to fresh hope, and national hatreds, hitherto restrained, now broke bounds. The humiliated Prussia desired, above all, revenge, and with the rest of Germany allied herself to Russia. To meet his enemies, Napoleon raised in France, in spite of her exhausted condition, an army of 300,000 men; it was almost entirely composed of conscripts of eighteen or nineteen years of age, who were drilled on the march. They equalled the veterans in courage, but had not strength to bear the fatigue of a long campaign.

The Emperor had been unable to replace the thousands of horses he had lost in Russia, and his want of cavalry prevented his gaining any decisive results from the victories he won at the outset of 1813. At the beginning of May he advanced down the valley of the Saal to Lützen, where he met the Russian and Prussian forces and forced them to retreat across the Elbe; they were again beaten, May 21, at Botzen on the Spree, and were driven to propose an armistice. Napoleon

might now have retrieved his position by making concessions to Austria, but he refused to do so, and Austria joined Prussia and Russia against him. The campaign opened with success on the part of the Prussians, but the great army of Bohemia was beaten at Dresden, August 27. A success won by Blücher at Katzbach prevented Napoleon from taking advantage of his victory, and he retired on Leipzig, where from the beginning the Allies had given each other rendezvous; there for four days, from October 16–19, he resisted the assaults of his enemies. It was the mightiest encounter of all, and was ended by the final defeat of Napoleon, November 1, 1813. Napoleon carried the remains of his army across the Rhine, still continuing the struggle, though he knew that Wellington had succeeded in driving the French out of Spain. In February 1814 he defeated the Allies four days running in as many battles, but his resources gradually dwindled away. Towards the end of March the Allies determined to march on Paris and on the 30th entered the city, Napoleon, who had been manœuvring in their rear, arriving too late to save it. His marshals now insisted on peace, and Napoleon consented to abdicate in favour of his son.

Meanwhile the Senate, under the direction of Talleyrand, had openly pronounced in favour of the restoration of the Bourbons, and the two rival claims were brought at the same time before the allied sovereigns, who instructed the envoys of Napoleon to demand an abdication pure and simple. In return he was to retain the title of Emperor and

to have the island of Elba in sovereignty. On April 11, 1814, Napoleon signed the abdication and bade farewell to his soldiers. He was met on the south coast by an English frigate which landed him, May 4, at Elba.

CHAPTER IV

THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA, AND WATERLOO

1814-1815

WHEN Napoleon was once overthrown, it was necessary for the Allies to draw up conditions of peace. The terms were arranged by the first Treaty of Paris, May 30, by which the frontiers of France were reduced to what they had been in 1792. The Allies agreed to evacuate France immediately, and in return France gave up ~~fifty-three~~ strong fortresses in Belgium, Germany and Italy, and ~~forty-three~~ vessels and ~~twelve~~ thousand pieces of ordnance. England kept Malta and the colonies which she had won from France during the course of the war.

Soon after a Congress of the Great Powers was held at Vienna, 1814, to reconstruct the map of Europe and to settle disputes that had arisen out of the wars.

Though it was in great measure owing to the growth of national feeling in the states of Europe that the power of Napoleon fell, little attention was paid by the Congress to the question of nationality. The crowned heads, whose ambassadors met at Vienna, were bent on so adjusting the balance of

power and so strengthening the various kingdoms of Europe, as to make it impossible that there should ever again be a repetition of the French Revolution; they and their representatives seem to have been unaware of the strength of this new feeling of nationality, and were only anxious to restore the old political conditions, and even the old ways of thought. With all, too, there was an anxiety for immediate peace, which blinded them to what seems to us now to have been their duty to the weaker countries. So when they came to rearrange the map of Europe, so disturbed by Napoleon, they allowed Russia to keep Finland and parts of Pomerania, and they tried to compensate Sweden for the loss of Finland by allowing her to annex Norway, which hitherto had formed one kingdom with Denmark. Again, Genoa was given to Piedmont to strengthen her against possible French aggression, and for the same reason Belgium was united to Holland, though the two countries differed in religion and policy and to some extent in language. So, too, the Rhine provinces were separated from France, although, having been united to her for twenty years during the height of her glory, they naturally wished to remain with her. Austria, failing to see that her interests lay in alliance with France, and only anxious to avoid all contact with that country, refused to take back her possessions in Suabia and the Netherlands, and found compensation instead in annexations in North Italy, where she took possession of Lombardy and Venetia. By failing in her duty of protecting the Rhine and German interests in general, and showing

of the French Revolution, had also much personal influence owing to his charm of manner. But he was also vain and fond of show, and amused his guests with so many festivities of different kinds that the Congress of Vienna was called the Dancing Congress.

Suddenly, while the Congress was still sitting, came the startling news that Napoleon had escaped from Elba and landed in France (March 1, 1815). All the time of his exile he had been in communication with his friends; he knew that Louis XVIII, urged by the nobles who had returned with him from exile, had been guilty of various unpopular acts, and also had heard of the bitterness that had resulted in France from the ~~cession~~ of all the fortresses which the French held throughout Europe: as the act of cession had been signed by the brother of Louis XVIII, the people held it to be a *pourboire* given by the Bourbons to the Allies as the price of their restoration. This caused forgetfulness of past sufferings under the Napoleonic régime, and the restoration of Napoleon's popularity. His march through France was a veritable triumph, the peasants escorting him from village to village, and all the troops sent to stay him joining his flag. At Lyons, the Count of Artois, sent to resist him, escaped only with difficulty; Marshal Ney, who had promised Louis XVIII to "bring back the usurper in an iron cage," no sooner met him than he threw himself into his arms. Napoleon entered Paris amid loud acclamations at the head of 14,000 men, and Louis XVIII, who had escaped from the palace the evening before, took refuge in Belgium.

Napoleon at once announced to the allied sovereigns that he willingly accepted the Treaty of Paris, and desired that there should now be no struggle between them but the struggle as to which should be foremost in giving to their peoples the blessing of peace! The sovereigns refused even to receive Napoleon's circular; they had already solemnly declared him to be outside the law, and had come to an agreement to put 800,000 men in the field against him. Napoleon determined to leave them no time to complete their concentration. An English army under Wellington and a Prussian army under Blücher formed the vanguard of the coalition in Belgium; Napoleon resolved on instant attack, hoping to throw himself between the two before they were able to achieve a junction. His campaign lasted four days—June 15-18—and ended with Waterloo. On June 15 he crossed the Sambre, and the following day defeated Blücher at Ligny. At Quatre Bras, Ney met Wellington and was forced to retreat, but the defeat of Blücher made it necessary for Wellington to retire on Brussels in order to effect a junction with the Prussians. The 17th was spent in this retrograde movement, and on the 18th Wellington gave battle, in spite of inferior numbers, near the little village of Waterloo, as he knew he could rely on the assistance of the Prussians, who arrived on the scene in the course of the afternoon. About eight o'clock in the evening, the cry "Sauve-qui-peut!" arose from the French guard; a general advance of the English decided the victory, and the pursuit was thoroughly accomplished by the Prussians, under Blücher's orders to continue it as

long as they had either a man or a horse able to stand.

Napoleon re-entered Paris the next day, abdicated for the second time, and gave himself up to the English. He was exiled to St. Helena, where he died six years later.

CHAPTER V

NATIONAL FEELING

1815-1818

AFTER Napoleon's exile, the Congress of Vienna resumed its work, but was now even less ready than before to sympathise with those who dreamed of a golden time, when the peoples of Europe should be nobler and freer, and each nation should feel its own power and govern itself. National feeling had been aroused, as we have seen, by Napoleon's trying to force his empire on the nations he conquered, but in some cases it had been actually called into being, by his granting better institutions to a nation, that had previously suffered from tyrannical government, as in the case of Italy.

The Congress of Vienna was so well satisfied with its own arrangements that the Tsar tried to form a "Holy Alliance" to secure their permanence, and to ensure the peace of the world by pledging those who signed it to furnish help to each other, if need arose, for the maintenance of peace and justice. None of the other Powers, however, understood or sympathised with the Tsar, and saw that dangers might arise from the establishment of such a tribunal of the Great Powers as he proposed. His idea failed

of general acceptance, and though a quadruple alliance was signed at Paris, 1815, by the representatives of Russia, Austria, Prussia and England, it served only to show, almost immediately, that there was no real agreement among them, while the folly of the restored rulers, and of those who had returned embittered from exile, was a matter of grave concern. For example, in Rome, the Pope excluded all laymen from office, and even forbade street lighting because it was of French origin. In Savoy, Victor Emmanuel cancelled every act of government since 1787, and his officials grubbed up the botanical gardens which had been planted by the French. In France itself numbers of Protestants and Bonapartists were murdered, and Marshal Ney and others were shot in spite of the King and his ministers, who were anxious for moderation and tried to save them. In Germany, Metternich watched with equal disfavour the confusion resulting from like measures of reaction in some states and from experiments in new forms of government in others. In Spain, Ferdinand naturally repudiated a ridiculous constitution which had been proclaimed there when Napoleon was driven out, and which deprived both Church and aristocracy of all voice in the Government; but not content with this, in spite of the protests of the Powers, he also restored the Inquisition and began a fierce persecution of everything that savoured of Liberalism.

Such actions as these increased the difficulties of the Powers, who were really desirous of giving good government to all, so far as was consistent with their extreme dread of revolution and of such another

outbreak as that which had occurred in France, to which they attributed all the ills of the last thirty years. France naturally occupied their thoughts as being the centre of revolutionary feeling, and Prussia, animated by the spirit of revenge for all she had suffered from Napoleon, was eager to dismember her. England and Russia however, while willing to take such measures as would secure Europe from any fresh attempt at aggression on the part of France, were anxious that she should again take her proper place in the council of nations, and, as they secured Austria's ~~affection and~~ adhesion to their views, Prussia was compelled to give way. But, in order to prevent any chance of a rising on the part of the French, the allied army of occupation, 150,000 strong, under Wellington, was still left in the country. The King Louis XVIII and his counsellors were willing to work in accord with the desires of the Great Powers, and wished to show mercy to their opponents and to govern with moderation. They had, however, lost influence when driven away by Napoleon on his return from Elba, and were also hampered by the return, from exile, of numbers of French *émigrés*, full of such vindictive spirit, that their excesses could be stopped only by the presence of the foreign troops, who had to interfere in order to prevent the murder of Frenchmen by Frenchmen.

At length, a new parliament with a majority of moderates came into power, and France started on a more prosperous course. The army of occupation was reduced, and its complete withdrawal, as well as the reception of France into the Concert

of Europe, was effected a year or so later at the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1818, the great aim of which was the suppression of disorder and the maintenance of peace throughout Europe.

Napoleon's downfall was followed in Germany by a period of great unrest. Austria, as we have seen, had withdrawn from the Rhine and from the protection of Germany; only during the next fifty years did the full meaning of this renunciation and the headship of Prussia, which it involved, dawn on the mind of the country; for Austria at that time had no idea of a strong, united Germany arising under any other leadership than her own. A loose confederacy of all the German states, in which she could maintain her own ascendancy, was her object, and for a time, owing to the diplomacy of Metternich, she was successful, and managed to attach the majority of the states to her interests. The Diet, which consisted of representatives of all the states, had little power and less zeal for reform, and showed how needless was the Emperor of Austria's advice against "too great haste," by paying a contractor in 1843 for work done in 1794!

The King of Prussia, in the heat of enthusiasm at Napoleon's overthrow, had promised his people a constitution, and German Liberals now clamoured for him to keep his word, not realising that Prussian nationality did not at that time exist. Pomeranians, Brandenburgers, Silesians and Slavs, while acknowledging allegiance to the throne of Prussia, yet all claimed to be separate nations with different religions and traditions, and were only held together by the loosest of ties. These people had no real

desire for a constitution, nor had they any political experience of how to live under one. They had no ideas beyond their own provinces. Not until in process of time they became welded together was it possible for them to think of constitutional forms of government; nor were the experiments made in this direction by some of the smaller German states likely to encourage a king to grant popular government: witness the national Diet of Baden, which talked for three months without passing a single law. The first step necessary to establish Prussian ascendancy was a good tariff system, which should lessen the difficulties and dangers arising from her scattered territories and broken frontier. She therefore devised a scheme of her own, compelling the smaller states, that were surrounded by her territories, or separated by them from the main trade routes, to come into it by the heavy transit tariff she imposed; though she granted them generous conditions when they joined her Customs Union known as the *Zollverein*. In this way, probably half unconsciously, by identifying the material interests of the German states with her own, she laid the foundations of the future imperial power of Prussia. So little did Metternich foresee the consequences of this union, that he used his influence to help Prussia through the difficulties of its formation. Not forecasting the future, Metternich pronounced the Congress of Aix a great success—"a prettier little Congress," he said, "he had never seen." His aim had been to keep Germany weak and to quench all revolutionary agitation, and for the time he succeeded; and though we may blame

him for his reactionary spirit and his inability to understand the growing demand of the peoples for a voice in their government, at any rate he gave to Europe the long rest and peace which she so badly needed.

CHAPTER VI

REACTION

1819-1833

THE dread of revolution which dictated the policy of Metternich was felt in not Austria alone. The Tsar and Frederick III, King of Prussia, frightened by noisy liberal demonstrations in Germany, were his willing supporters. Only a year after the publication of the Treaty of Aix, Kotzebue, a Russian journalist, whose writings and autocratic sympathies had roused the hatred of the liberals, was murdered by a young German student, who believed him to be a spy of the Holy Alliance. This crime was noisily extolled by many liberals, who ought to have known better, as the act of a noble and patriotic youth; thus the hands of Metternich were strengthened, as he was able to point to this and other instances of lawlessness to prove the danger lurking in the spread of liberal ideas.

The King of Prussia, in a panic, gave up all thoughts of a constitution, and a foolish frenzy of reaction became general. Liberalism suffered severe persecution; thousands of men were imprisoned or exiled on the most ridiculous charges, and the Carlsbad Decrees, 1819, which regulated a very strict police

system to suppress liberal ideas, came into force. News of trouble in Spain and Italy increased the terror of King Frederick, but he continued his efforts to reform the internal administration of his territories and to absorb state after state into his Customs Union.

The same dread of revolution was felt in England and was followed by the same repressive measures, with the result that the starving artisans, suffering from the rise of prices and heavy taxation caused by Napoleon's wars, broke out into constant rioting, and an organised agitation for parliamentary reform was started under the leadership of William Cobbett. Meetings were held in such of the great manufacturing towns as were without representation; one meeting, held at Manchester, was dispersed by cavalry, when some people were crushed to death and more injured. This aroused the passions of the mob; rioting continued, and the terrified Government suspended the Habeas Corpus Act and the right of public meeting.

In Spain, where the wretched Ferdinand VII—who had restored the Inquisition and all the old influence and wealth of the clergy—ruled, there were constant revolts; but though Ferdinand was compelled to swear to yield to some of the demands of the revolutionists, these latter were so unreasonable that they soon became as unpopular as the upholders of arbitrary power.

Constant confusion reigned in the country, and at length the French determined to send an army "to preserve the throne of Spain to a descendant of Henry IV." It was the first time for thirty-four

years that a French army had marched under the Bourbon lilies, but the soldiers showed no hesitation even when met by Bonapartist exiles with the tricolour flag. The French pressed on rapidly to Madrid ; the Constitutional Government fled to Seville and shortly after to Cadiz, carrying the King with them ; there they were forced to yield and to accept the moderate terms proposed by the French, 1823. But no sooner was Ferdinand set at liberty than he repudiated every act he had signed since 1820—even an act of amnesty to which he had agreed the previous day. The French invasion, however, secured his power, and he kept it till his death in 1833. Before he died he set aside the Salic law and declared his daughter Isabella heir to the throne, but her right was disputed by her uncle, Don Carlos, and in order to strengthen the position of the youthful queen a certain measure of constitutional government was granted. From the time of Isabella's accession began the long struggle in Spain between the Carlists, who upheld the doctrine of absolute power and divine right, and the opposing party, who upheld the banner of popular government. Spain was left to fight the matter out in her own way, the rest of Europe paying little attention. Canning, who had succeeded Castlereagh as Prime Minister, protested when the French invaded Spain, and told the French Government that England would not tolerate the subjugation by force of the Spanish colonies to the Mother Country, as English interests were too much bound up in them. Whether this protest would have been sufficient is uncertain, but in 1823 Canning's position was strengthened by the

appearance on the scene of a new power. In that year President Monroe sent to Congress his now famous message in which he protested against the claim of the Great Powers of Europe to interfere in the affairs of South America, declaring that such interference would be considered "an unfriendly act." This was the first enunciation of the Monroe doctrine of "America for the Americans," the full meaning of which is not yet realised, for the doctrine has never been either admitted or rejected by European Governments. The independence of the Spanish colonies was recognised by Canning the following year.

In Portugal, matters were equally unsettled. During the Napoleonic wars the King, John VI, had fled to Brazil, then a Portuguese colony, and now wished to rule Portugal from there. He proclaimed the union of the Portuguese dominions under the title of the United Kingdom of Portugal, Brazil and the Algarves, and appointed a regent in Portugal. This arrangement naturally displeased the Portuguese, who, from being an imperial Power, found themselves reduced to the position of a dependency of their former colony, and the King was told that if he did not at once return he would lose his kingdom. He came back very unwillingly, and in spite of the strong opposition of the Queen. During his absence Brazil declared her independence and proclaimed John's son Pedro Emperor, and at John's death, 1825, Pedro was acknowledged King of Portugal also; but as he preferred to remain in Brazil he abdicated in favour of his young daughter Maria, appointing his brother Dom Miguel regent. Before setting

foot in Portugal Dom Miguel swore to observe a constitution which practically deprived him of all power and even of all influence, and so rendered settled government impossible. Confusion therefore reigned throughout the whole peninsula.

Though in Portugal, the struggle between the adherents of absolutism and those of constitutional government was at last ended by the victory of the latter, the unhappy country had much first to go through. Don Pedro, son of John VI, had, as we have seen, abdicated in favour of his daughter Maria, who became queen under the regency of his brother, Dom Miguel, but the latter proved faithless to his trust and usurped the throne of his niece in 1828, and in the following year Maria was driven from the country. The rights of the young Queen Isabella of Spain were, as we have seen, disputed by her uncle, Don Carlos. The two uncles now made common cause; they were supported by the Church and the Legitimists in the Peninsula, and had the sympathy of the three Eastern Powers, while England and France declared in favour of the young queens, Maria and Isabella. Dom Miguel was banished and Maria restored to the throne of Portugal, 1834.

In Naples, though the restored Bourbon King, Ferdinand, made no violent changes, his persecution of all liberal opinions soon led to revolt. The revolutionists proved themselves as blind as those of Spain, and, refusing all compromise, would agree only to the foolish and unworkable Spanish Constitution and would not allow Ferdinand, who wished to attend a Congress of the Powers, to

leave the country till he had agreed to adopt it, 1821. Ferdinand, unable himself to keep order, when once safe out of Naples, willingly agreed that the Austrians, who feared revolt so near their borders, should march into the country to his aid. So badly organised and equipped was the Austrian force, that the slightest show of resolution on the part of the revolutionists would have ensured its defeat; but the latter were in an even worse condition; they made only a half-hearted attempt at resistance, and Naples was soon subjected to a reign of terror under its restored monarch. What might have been the effect at this period of a mild policy on her part in Venetia and Lombardy it is impossible to say, but Austria now made the fatal mistake of trying to germanise Italy. This roused all the peoples against her, and led them to see in the unity of Italy their only chance of reasonable freedom. Open resistance being impossible, revolutionary secret societies were formed, and were met by Austria with a system of secret police and espionage, till the whole country became a mere nest of plotters and spies, and all the liberal leaders, some of them the cleverest and noblest men of the time, were doomed to years of captivity in horrible dungeons.

This crushing of all liberal opinion in Italy delighted Metternich. "It looks," he said, "as though the dawn of a better day is beginning to break."

CHAPTER VII

THE EASTERN QUESTION

1821-1833

WE have now seen how the politics of Europe seemed to be working to the satisfaction of Metternich, who desired only the maintenance of peace and the suppression of revolutionary tendencies; his serenity, however, was disturbed in 1821 by the news that an insurrection had broken out in the Danubian principalities against the Ottoman Power. This was the opening of the troubles as to the destiny of the Turkish Empire, which is known as the Eastern Question, and which yet awaits its full solution. This Eastern Question was compared by a Russian diplomatist to the gout, which he said took you in different parts, and you were lucky if it did not fly to the stomach. The comparison is good, for much of the unrest in Europe has been owing to the presence in her system of this foreign body, unlike her in religion, customs and manners. Unfortunately the nations of Europe have seldom been in agreement on the question, and Austria and England have feared the expanding power of Russia more than they have abhorred the Turk.

There seems, at first, to have been no real reason for the Greek revolt against the Turks, as the

Christian subjects of the Sultan known as the "orthodox" were far better off than the peasantry of other European countries, but their religion had always made them feel as aliens among the Turks. They were splendid sailors, and dreams of reviving the old Greek Empire of Byzantium were easily fostered among them by secret societies. At last, taking advantage of a revolt of one of the Turkish pashas, they rose under Prince Alexander Hypsilanti, a Greek of good family, but vain and incompetent, and quite unable to restrain his wild followers from infamous massacres of Mussulmans. Unsupported by Russia, the revolt was soon suppressed, but the subsequent action of the Sultan roused strong feeling in that country, because in revenge for the massacres committed by the Greeks, the Patriarch of Constantinople, the recognised head of the Greek Church, was executed. Metternich, however, brought pressure to bear on the Porte, and so influenced the Tsar Alexander as to prevent an outbreak of war between Russia and Turkey. Peace was the easier to arrange as affairs in Spain were absorbing the attention of Europe.

But after some years the Great Powers were again compelled to intervene in Greece, where the failure of Prince Hypsilanti had by no means put an end to the spirit of revolt, and insurrection had broken out in Greece proper. The whole people, fired by a fanatic hatred of their Turkish rulers, burst into rebellion and conducted it with relentless cruelty. In six weeks nearly the whole of the 25,000 Mussulmans living in the Morea were massacred. After the storming of one

of the Mussulman strongholds, 2000 prisoners, men, women and children, were killed in cold blood. In this awful manner the Morea was freed from the Turks, and the insurrection spread into northern Greece. It was a war of barbarian against barbarian, for the Greek leaders were, for the most part, savage brigand chiefs, and their naval leaders were, with a few noble exceptions, little better than pirates. Alone, the Greeks must, in the end, have succumbed to the Turks, but there were reasons why they were not left to fight their battles alone. A wave of feeling strongly in their favour passed over Europe. This was partly owing to the measures of retaliation taken by the Turks, in revenge for the massacres in the Morea, and partly to the sentiment that forgave all to Greeks because they were Greeks. With the help and sympathy of numbers of volunteers from various parts of Europe, the Greeks were for a time successful, till the Sultan in desperation called for the help of his vassal, Mehemet Ali, the ruler of Egypt; when the latter appeared with his well-trained army the fortunes of war changed and victory was on the side of Turkey.

But the possibility of the final defeat of the Greeks brought out the full power of Philhellenism, the love of the Greeks. This enthusiasm was very strong in England, for Englishmen knew that they owed a great debt to the Greeks of ancient times for all that they had learnt from them of what was beautiful, noble and good. Lord Canning was strongly in sympathy with the Greeks, whose literature he had always loved; Lord Byron, through his poetry, kept the enthusiasm alive and went to

Greece, where he finally died in their cause. We must confess that the Greeks at this time were seen in no true light, for their meannesses and cruelty and barbarism were for the time forgotten. There were other causes, too, for Philhellenism, for the Greeks were persecuted Christians, and at a time when there was a strong national feeling everywhere trying to assert itself, they were struggling for independence.

The success of Mehemet Ali, the Turkish Viceroy of Egypt, put a new face on affairs. Russia, where Nicholas I had succeeded Alexander as Tsar, was eager to use force against Turkey. England, under Canning, did not wish to see a Russian army destroy the Turkish Empire, but would have been glad to see Greece a separate state under the suzerainty of Turkey. France, under Charles X, took the same side, while Austria and Prussia were opposed to all intervention. Endless negotiations took place, and finally the Treaty of London was drawn up. It set forth the necessity for European action, stated the terms which must be given to Greece, and declared that none of the parties to the treaty sought to increase their own territories or to gain commercial advantages. A month was given to the Porte to consider the treaty, with a warning that if it were not accepted worse things would follow. Lord Canning was still trying to conclude the treaty by peaceable means when he died. No satisfactory answer being received from the Turkish Minister, the Russian, English and French fleets were ordered out. The French and English admirals received orders to separate the Turks and the Greeks by peaceful

means if they could, and if this proved impossible, then to resort to other measures. The Egyptian and Turkish fleets lay in the Bay of Navarino. The Egyptian commander was laying waste the country, and paid no heed to the remonstrances of the Allies, who thereupon sailed into the bay to enforce their wishes, but without any intention of fighting. An altercation, however, took place as to the removal of some fire ships; shots were exchanged, and soon a battle was raging which ended in the total destruction of the Turkish fleet, October 20, 1827. The Sultan, furious at the defeat, proclaimed a "Holy War" against all Christian countries, and especially against Russia. Russia proposed that the Allies should at once follow up their victory, but England, with no Canning to advise her, now refused to do anything to weaken Turkey, and France also withdrew. Russia was left to invade Turkey alone, and, September 14, 1829, she compelled the Porte to sign the Treaty of Adrianople, which erected the Danubian Principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia into practically independent states and made Greece an autonomous state under Turkish suzerainty. A little later, September 1832, all the Powers agreed that Greece should be recognised as an independent kingdom. It was difficult to find a king. The crown was declined by the Saxon Prince John and by Prince Leopold, who afterwards became King of the Belgians, but was accepted in 1833 by Otho of Bavaria, then only eighteen years of age. It was a very difficult position to fill, and promised but little honour.

CHAPTER VIII

REVOLUTION IN FRANCE AND ITS CONSEQUENCES

1824-1830

CHARLES X of France, who in 1824 succeeded his brother Louis XVIII, was an obstinate, bigoted man, who prepared the way for another revolution. He had viewed the moderate policy of his brother with great disapproval: "I would rather hew wood," he exclaimed, "than be a king on the conditions of the King of England." He had the old despotic ideas of the Bourbons, and quite failed to understand the character of his people. He soon took as his chief minister Prince Jules de Polignac, whose sole ideas were absolutism and clerical supremacy. It was a government "by priests, through priests, for priests," and discontent and opposition grew apace.

Meanwhile, great military success was gained in Africa in the conquest of Algiers, and the tidings of this encouraged Charles in his absolutist career; without waiting for the consent of the Chambers, on July 25, 1830, he issued four ordinances, that is, laws on his own personal authority; by these he dissolved the Chambers, summoned a new Parliament, altered the franchise and suspended the liberty of the Press. All these ordinances angered the people,

but the last seemed to them unbearable, for the liberty of the Press holds a very important place in France; it was granted to the nation in most explicit and positive form, and is cherished as the greatest treasure of political liberty: it is in France much what the Habeas Corpus Act and the jury system are in England. The people of Paris instantly rose; street fighting began; the troops fraternised with the people and hoisted the old tricolour flag. The mob burst into the Tuileries, sacked the palace, and threw the royal furniture into the Seine. So little did the King realise the situation, that when word was brought to him in his castle at Rambouillet that "all was finished," he understood it to be an announcement of victory. Then, when it was too late, he offered to retract his edict. France was no longer safe for him and he fled to England; but before he left his country, he learned that the crown had been offered to, and accepted by, Louis Philippe Duke of Orleans, the representative of the younger branch of the Bourbons. A journalist thus summed up the situation from the point of view of the victors: Charles X was impossible, so was a republic, because it was sure to lead to the intervention of Europe; but there was Louis Philippe—he had fought for the Revolution, he would rule by the will of the people, and wear the crown as their gift. Louis Philippe was accordingly proclaimed King of the French, and Europe agreed to recognise him, though this was done most unwillingly by Nicholas I of Russia, who had succeeded his brother Alexander in 1825. No sooner was the Revolution accomplished than

the mob clamoured for the blood of Polignac and the other ministers of Charles X. The King and his advisers wished to save them, but the mob rushed to Vincennes, where the ministers were imprisoned, and threw themselves furiously against the gates. The governor of the fortress, General Danmesnil, came out alone to confront the mob, and told them that if they attempted to force an entrance he would blow up the powder-magazine. The crowd, surprised by his courage, were silent for a few moments, and then with a roar of good-humoured laughter and cries of "Long live old wooden legs" they streamed back to Paris.

Louis Philippe, with no legitimate claim to the crown, but elected by the people, was bound to rule according to their will—a very difficult matter, for the real will of the people was not known, indeed it was hardly formed. The Citizen King, as he was called, accepted the part. He humbly walked the streets of Paris dressed as a private gentleman, and sent his sons to the public schools, or enrolled them as private soldiers in the National Guard. His modesty and kindly manners won for him many friends, but he was not the man to bring peace or prosperity to restless France, or to rule a nation still full of the ideas of Napoleon. However, he was able to call moderate men to his councils, and for a time the monarchy of France went quietly on its way.

The July Revolution in France encouraged the discontent that had long been simmering in Belgium. The arrangement made for Belgium at the Congress of Vienna had proved to be an unhappy one. It

had then been declared that the Netherlands should form a single state, but Belgium had not been consulted. Her population was much greater than that of Holland, and the languages, though similar, were not identical, yet Belgium and Holland had been united under a Dutch king, William I, Prince of Orange, and Dutch was recognised as the official language. The Catholics, who had been specially enraged in 1830 by the attempts of the King "to enlighten them," followed the example of the Parisian mob and Brussels barricaded herself. The Prince of Orange advanced against the city, but was forced to retire, and finally the States General met and decided for the separation of the countries. This separation was agreed to by a Congress of the Powers a few months later, but the contest over the arrangements for the separation was prolonged, as France tried hard to get back some of the territory she had lost in 1815. Lord Palmerston, the English War Minister, held with France in securing the independence of Belgium, but stood firm against any French aggression. "The moment," he said, "that we give France a cabbage-garden or a vineyard, we lose all our vantage-ground of principle." At length terms were agreed to, and a king was sought for. Prince Leopold of Coburg, who had refused the crown of Greece, expressed his willingness to accept the throne of Belgium. He had much to recommend him; he was united by close ties with England, having had as his first wife a daughter of George IV, and he was soon engaged to the Princess Louise of Orleans, which connected him with France. With

great good sense he insisted on a satisfactory settlement of the whole question at issue between Belgium and Holland, and before he began to reign the King of Holland, who believed in his divine right to both countries, abdicated in favour of his son.

It is doubtful whether Russia, Prussia or Austria would have agreed to these changes had not their attention been absorbed by revolt nearer home. Poland, with its restless nobility and oppressed peasantry, had been a source of disquiet to Europe for many years before it was dismembered by the First Partition Treaty between Prussia, Russia and Austria in 1772. Further partitions were made in 1793 and 1796, and by the last the whole of Poland was divided between those three Great Powers. After Tilsit, Napoleon constructed the Grand Duchy of Warsaw out of Prussian Poland, but in 1813 the Russians overran the duchy, which thus came into their possession by conquest. In 1815 the Congress of Vienna divided Poland between Austria and Prussia and Russia, with the trifling exception of Cracow, which was erected into a republic, but was finally occupied by Austria in 1848.

Alexander I of Russia had ruled his Polish provinces well, but he was unpopular because of his interference with the oppressive privileges of the nobility, who were as alien to the peasantry as to the Russians. The nobles retaliated by doing their best to make Russian rule impossible, till at last the Tsar grew discouraged and gradually the privileges granted to the Poles were withdrawn; secret plots against the Government were then set

on foot, and the success of the July Revolution in France was an encouragement to a general rising. An insurrection broke out in Warsaw, November 1830, but weakness, disunion and treachery marked its course; even worse, for not only were Russian officers murdered, but a horrible massacre of defenceless Jews took place. The Poles proclaimed their independence and hoped for support from Europe, but though sympathy was felt with them, for they had suffered much at the hands of other countries, and their rights had been but little considered, no Government was prepared to go to war on their account, or to condone the great wrong they had done. The Russian armies entered the country, the insurrection was crushed, and Poland then became a mere province of Russia.

During this time and for the next few years Austria was busy suppressing revolts in Italy, almost all due to misgovernment.

CHAPTER IX

THE EASTERN QUESTION AGAIN

1832

ABOUT 1832 the attention of Europe was again called to the East, where Mehemet Ali of Egypt had by no means given up those ambitious projects that had for a time been put an end to by the battle of Navarino. The Sultan of Turkey was at this time unpopular in his own dominions; he had attempted reforms to try to conciliate European opinion, and these had roused bitter resentment among orthodox Mussulmans, by whom he was called the "infidel Sultan." Mehemet Ali took advantage of his unpopularity to demand the pashalik of Damascus for his son Ibrahim. The Sultan Mahmoud refused; Ibrahim, at his father's command, invaded Syria, and met with rapid success. Mahmoud appealed to the Powers, but Russia alone was willing to respond, and though the Sultan viewed Russia's offers with suspicion, yet, as he said, "a drowning man will grasp at a serpent."

The Russians landed a large force on either side of the Bosphorus, and collected a still larger force ready to cross the Danube. This so roused the jealous fears of England and France that they brought

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pressure to bear on the Porte to accept Mehemet's terms, and to grant him the government of Syria. Their intervention thus weakened the Sultan and led him, in his indignation at this disregard of his interests by his so-called friends, to conclude an offensive and defensive alliance with Russia, called the *Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi*, July 8, 1833; by a secret article of this treaty the Sultan agreed not to allow any but Russian war vessels to pass through the Dardanelles. Mahmoud, however, still longed for vengeance on his disobedient vassal, and six years later, when he had reorganised his army, he invaded Syria. This campaign was even more disastrous to the Turkish arms than the earlier one had been, and the road to Constantinople soon lay open to Ibrahim. At this crisis the old Sultan died, leaving his throne to his son, a lad of sixteen.

The European Powers now thought it was time to intervene. France was anxious to support Mehemet Ali, but the other four Powers undertook to uphold the Sultan against him, and the Convention of London was signed 1840 without the knowledge of the French Ambassador. This caused a storm of rage in Paris, but Palmerston, the English War Minister, was calm, saying the France of Louis Philippe was not the France of Napoleon. He was right, and though the French talked loudly of war, their zeal cooled when Mehemet's forces yielded at once to the efforts of the Allies, and the very Syrians, who six years before had welcomed Ibrahim as a liberator, turned against him as a tyrant. Mehemet resigned all claims to

Syria, and the Powers undertook to use their influence with the Porte to obtain for him and his heirs the pashalik of Egypt. Two years later, 1842, another convention which met in London agreed that in future not only the Dardanelles but the Bosphorus also should be closed to the warships of all nations, and thus secured to Russia all she had hoped from the secret clauses of the Treaty of Unkiar Skelessi.

CHAPTER X

UNREST IN EUROPE

1848-1851

THE thirty years of comparative peace which the Congress of Vienna had obtained for Europe had enormously increased the national prosperity of the different countries, and the progress in knowledge and thought had been considerable. At the same time a desire for political freedom had naturally arisen, accompanied by an almost universal feeling of dissatisfaction with things as they were, but without any clear perception of how they could be altered. This discontent was fostered by secret societies, chief among which was that of the Carbonari in Italy, and it found expression in various partial revolts, which naturally failed and only led to greater rigour on the part of the Governments against whom they were directed.

The first real impulse towards a definite policy in Italy was given by Joseph Mazzini, who, having been banished by the Piedmontese Government for promulgating revolutionary ideas, from his exile never ceased in his efforts to stir his country, to hope and to strive for national unity. Mazzini had a high opinion of the power of young men to work out

great results by their enthusiasm, and he formed a society called Young Italy, with "God and the People" as its motto, which numbered more than 60,000 men, all under forty years of age. He had unfailing belief in the future of his country, and taught by his speeches and writings, that a nation's greatness depends on its character, and that men must never think only, or even first, of their rights, but always of their duties.

In other parts of the Austrian Empire, notably in Hungary, the same spirit of unrest prevailed, and here Louis Kossuth arose to speak for the Magyar people. It is said that every Hungarian peasant is eloquent, but Kossuth possessed the gift in a high degree. His power of persuasion was wonderful, and he was endowed with a beautiful thrilling voice and a majestic presence, and the hearts of the people were drawn to him, for he had suffered imprisonment in the cause of freedom, and at a time when Hungary was ravaged by cholera he had visited the places where suffering was greatest and given his help. His influence and persuasive words induced the nobles to yield their own privileges and to consider the rights of the people. But the movement which he encouraged for the benefit of the Hungarians, or Magyars, naturally stirred up the national feeling of those races who would suffer from Magyar domination; thus Slavs, Czechs, Serbs, Croats and Dalmatians were jealous of the attempt for Magyar ascendancy.

In almost every other country of Europe unrest was more or less prevalent. In England, where the Reform Bill of 1832 had given political power

to the middle and trading classes, but had done little or nothing for the artisan, discontent took the form of risings in favour of a People's Charter.

In France, as in the rest of Europe, a revolutionary movement was preparing; the government of Louis Philippe became constantly more and more reactionary, and this led to the formation of a strong Socialist party in opposition. Discontent was increased by the King's policy in regard to what is known as the "Affair of the Spanish Marriages." It was proposed to marry Isabella, the young Queen of Spain, and her sister, to French princes of the house of Bourbon—an arrangement which threatened the balance of power in Europe, as it might lead to the union of the two thrones. England made a strong protest against the proposed marriages, but this was disregarded by France, whose minister Guizot arranged that the two princesses should be wedded to the two Bourbons on the same day. The entente between England and France was destroyed; Isabella, who hated the marriage into which she had been forced, upheld English influence at Madrid, and France considered that her interests had been sacrificed to those of the Bourbon dynasty. Agitations for reform began; the Government, blind to the signs of the times, thought only of repressive measures; riots took place, and the King, alarmed, dismissed Guizot; but it was too late. Cries of "Vive la République!" drowned the more moderate cry for reform. The King, in despair, abdicated the throne in favour of his son the Comte de Paris, but the people declared "that is not enough, the whole dynasty must go." Then Louis Philippe, with the

aged queen, made his way to the coast and to England, and so the French monarchy came to an end.

This was what the revolutionists desired, and a republic was at once proclaimed. The Socialist section, supported by the mob of Paris, decreed the establishment of national workshops, but in the first elections, under universal suffrage, they were in a small minority. The national workshops had collected a host of 100,000 men, for whom it was quite impossible to provide remunerative labour. The Government decreed that the shops should be closed; the workmen resisted, and a bloody civil war raged for three days in the streets of Paris, before the moderate party crushed their adversaries and established a republic, with a President at its head, elected for four years.

Louis Napoleon, a nephew of Napoleon Bonaparte, was elected a member of the Assembly, and when the elections for the Presidency took place, December 1848, an overwhelming number of votes were cast for him, perhaps more because of his name than for any other reason.

He had already made several unsuccessful attempts to gain a footing in France, after the failure of one of which he was imprisoned in the fortress of Ham. He escaped in the disguise of a workman, with the help of his doctor. He then lived quietly in England, but never lost an opportunity of trying to gain adherents in France, even endeavouring to bribe some of the leaders of the army. In this he failed. One famous general who had received such a communication from him rose in

passion against the messenger and said, " You dare to bring such a letter to me ! I had thought better of you. Were I so base as to accept this offer, I should be a thief whom the meanest corporal would have a right to take by the collar," and, opening the door, he thrust the messenger out as he exclaimed, " Go and get yourself hanged elsewhere ! "

CHAPTER XI

THE COUP D'ÉTAT IN FRANCE

1851

WHEN in 1848 Louis Napoleon was elected President of France, he took an oath to remain faithful to the democratic republic, and in his address to the Assembly promised, with the help of "honourable men," to give good government to the country, and, in the early days of the republic, many useful public works were undertaken; especially we may note that canals, high roads and rivers were improved; agricultural machinery was introduced; farming was developed, and manufactures and arts encouraged. Paris particularly was improved by new drainage and new streets.

But the President failed in his promises to give good government. He soon gave the "honourable men" to understand that he had little regard for their advice, and he made demands on some of his ministers to which as honourable men they could not agree. In the course of three years Louis Napoleon had between eighty and ninety ministers. The Cabinet generally consisted of ten members, who were little more than his puppets. He talked much of the blessings of self-government, but ruled

France by his own will, and was determined that when the four years for which he had been elected were over he would not sink back into obscurity. Slowly and patiently he prepared the way for empire, gradually surrounding himself with tools on whom he could absolutely rely, while the Chambers, with singular blindness, played into his hands by so narrowing the franchise as to exclude some three million Frenchmen from the vote. Ministers were dismissed till the President got one to his liking; then he proposed again to change and to return to universal suffrage, knowing that if the motion were carried, three million votes would be gained, while if rejected he had an excuse for using violence to the Chambers. The motion was rejected and the Radicals, in anger, joined the partisans of the President. Napoleon then silenced the Press, suppressed associations of all kinds, and won over the troops of Paris; it is said that he feasted whole regiments with champagne, sausages and cigars, in return for which they shouted "Vive Napoléon!" "Vive l'Empereur." Though the only military rank Napoleon held was that of a captain of artillery in the Swiss service, he wore the uniform of a French general, reviewed troops, distributed orders and honours, and in all respects acted as the General-in-Chief of the Army. At the same time he tried, by enriching, entertaining and diverting France, to distract attention from his schemes.

The Commander of the National Guard, a sincere republican, was next induced by a trick to resign.

Finally, the Prince-President, as he was now called, carried out a long-considered plan known as the

coup d'état. This was nothing less than the secret arrest of all the leading men whom he believed to be opposed to him and to his unconstitutional methods. In the dead of night, while seventy-eight of the most conspicuous deputies were being carried off to prison, telegrams were sent to the provinces informing them that Paris had hailed the change of government with joy, and printers set up, under bayonets, the type of the proclamation Napoleon was to issue next morning.

On December 2, 1851, Paris woke up to an accomplished fact. The Chambers were surrounded by soldiers and dispersed. Victor Hugo, Jules Favre and other ardent republicans strove to raise the mob of Paris; barricades were thrown up and some fighting took place, but the troops were easily victorious, and in two days all was at an end.

In Napoleon's proclamation it was stated that the President was to be elected for ten years, and that he was to be assisted by a Ministry of State responsible to him alone; a Council of State would prepare the laws, and a Senate and *Legislative* Chamber keep order. Meanwhile Paris and the near departments were declared in a state of siege; universal suffrage was restored, and the French people summoned to confirm these arrangements. A fortnight later this was done by an overwhelming majority. Napoleon was emperor in all but name, and issued a constitution which was practically a despotism, and within a year the Presidency was converted into a hereditary Empire, December 2, 1852, by over seven million votes to a bare quarter of a million. Those who had resisted the *coup d'état*, or who were

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only suspected of wishing to do so, were dealt with summarily with scarce a show of trial. Over fifteen thousand persons, either in the first instance or later, were convicted; some were imprisoned and some expelled from the country; of the latter, some were sent to Algeria and others to Cayenne, purposely chosen for its unhealthy climate.

Louis Napoleon thus succeeded in carrying out his plans and becoming Emperor of France.

He had done his best, for the sake of his own petty ambition, to stifle all that was best in France, and his crime has never been forgiven.

CHAPTER XII

AUSTRIA AND ITALY

1847-1849

THE revolution in France was followed by outbreaks over almost the whole of Europe, especially in those parts where Austria for years had sought to stem the rising power of Liberalism. Austria's hatred of all change was natural, for the State was compounded of so many different races, languages, religions, hatreds and rivalries that almost any alteration was fraught with danger. "Let us sleep on it," was the Emperor's famous comment on almost any proposal for a change, but the growing self-assertion of the nationalities within his empire was bound to find expression.

In Austria, in Germany and in Italy the reactionary powers failed for a time, but were able to recover themselves owing to the divisions that too soon appeared in the forces opposed to them. Kossuth's speeches, which had already raised the Hungarians to the highest pitch of excitement, were carried to Vienna, where they roused the people to a riot, that soon grew to a revolution. Such a state of affairs seemed incredible to Metternich, who refused to believe that Vienna could be anything

but loyal, till the mob was actually thundering at the door of his office ; then he hastily placed his resignation in the hands of the King and went into exile. He was now an old man, and had lost the ability of former years ; he was no longer necessary to the State, but his name was connected with the system that the people hated, and his downfall greatly encouraged Liberal hopes. Hungary chose a ministry of her own and became practically an independent state, bound to Austria only by the fact that her governor was a member of the royal family. Her insistence on the use of the Magyar language in all debates and official documents was the beginning of the language question which has troubled Austria ever since. Bohemia followed the example of Hungary, and Austria was powerless to prevent it, for her whole attention was concentrated on Italy, where the Lombards had risen, and Piedmont, under Charles Albert, supported by the Neapolitans, had declared war.

In 1847 a new Pope, Pius IX, initiated reforms in the Papal states, and his example was followed by the rulers of Tuscany and Sardinia. Ferdinand of Naples' refusal of all reform led to a revolution in his dominions, and he was forced to grant a constitution. The agitation spread to other Italian states, and in 1848 constitutional government was everywhere established in Italy save in Venetia and Lombardy. Excited by the success of revolution elsewhere, and by the news that even in Vienna itself the people had risen and that old Metternich, "the rock of order," had been compelled to flee, Milan and Venice rose against the Austrians. Then

throughout the peninsula patriots thought that the hour of independence had come. Mazzini hurriedly returned to Italy to enrol himself as a volunteer under Garibaldi, so soon to make his name famous as a leader of irregular forces. Charles Albert of Sardinia and Piedmont declared his willingness to spend "his life, the life of his children, his army, his treasury, his all in the cause of Italy," and immediately, as we have seen, declared war, March 1848, in conjunction with Naples.

Austria was fortunate at this crisis in her general, Radetsky, who saw clearly the numerous elements of weakness on the Italian side, and realised that if Austria had patience to wait she would win in the end. Meanwhile, in consequence of her troops being needed in Italy, Austria was unable to do anything to check the revolution that was spreading throughout Central Europe, and which led to the convocation of a German National Assembly at Frankfort. Even in Italy, Radetsky's position seemed at first desperate. The Piedmontese army, with volunteers from Lombardy and Tuscany, was advancing from the west, the Papal and Neapolitan troops from the south, while Venice, which a successful revolution had converted into a republic, threatened him from the east, and the Tyrolese were in revolt in the north. Radetsky's army, inferior as it was in numbers and consisting largely of Italian and therefore unreliable troops, could scarcely have held its own against a well-directed attack. But the Lombards neglected to harass his retreat from Milan, and the Piedmontese army advanced so slowly, that he was able to concentrate his forces in the famous fortresses of the

Quadrilateral, Legnano, Mantua, Peschiera and Verona. A first success raised the spirits of the Italians, but their very successes were turned into defeats by the incompetence of their leaders, and though several more victories were won, and Charles Albert was hailed as King of Italy, and the ministers at Vienna were in despair, still Radetsky asked for patience and promised success. He was right, for the newborn unity of Italy soon began to give way. The Pope was the first to withdraw; he distrusted Piedmont, and it went against his conscience, he said, to be warring with a great Catholic power, nor had he ever been more than half-hearted in his liberal policy. Naples was the next to draw back, for a foolish attempt at a fresh revolution by some extreme radicals gave the king an excuse not only to crush them, but also to withdraw the constitution he had granted. Radetsky renewed his activity, and finally Charles Albert was defeated in a pitched battle and compelled to evacuate Milan and to agree to an armistice. Her very enemies, too, played into the hands of Austria. The extreme republicans came to the fore, and a moderate minister of the Pope was murdered as he entered the Parliament House. The Pope fled to Gaeta; Rome and Tuscany proclaimed themselves republics, thus destroying all hopes of a united Italy under Piedmont, and Charles Albert was left to renew the struggle alone. He made a brave attempt, but in spite of their valour and good conduct, his forces were defeated owing to bad generalship and the break-down of the commissariat. In a fortnight all was over, and the Piedmontese were beaten in the bloody battle of

Novara, 1849. Rather than sign a humiliating peace Charles Albert abdicated in favour of his young son Victor Emmanuel.

Though Charles Albert's life ended in failure, he had helped to make possible the dawn of a brighter day, for, as the young Piedmontese minister Cavour said, his heroic self-sacrifice "had given Italy that which compensated her for all her loss, a national flag."

After the defeat of Charles Albert the republicans in Italy resolved to continue the war against Austria. Kings, they said, had betrayed them, let them appeal to the peoples. In this mood, Garibaldi and his followers carried on a republican campaign, Mazzini marching with the troops as a standard bearer, and carrying a flag with his own watchword "God and the People." In a few days, however, he and Garibaldi quarrelled and he left for Switzerland. Some weeks later, Garibaldi was driven across the Swiss frontier, but not until he had displayed such a genius for guerilla warfare as to ensure himself the enthusiastic attachment of the democrats in every state of Italy.

CHAPTER XIII

GERMANY

1848

IN Germany and in Austria the same dissensions as in Italy destroyed the democratic governments. German and Czech, Slav and Magyar, were all jealous of each other, and each was anxious to impose its own yoke on the others. Universal suffrage had naturally returned a Slav majority to the Austrian Reichsrath, and the German democrats, disgusted at this logical result of their principles, enlisted the Viennese mob on their side; the result was chaos, a condition of disorder and lawlessness almost impossible to imagine. The Emperor, who after a time retired to Innsbruck, soon received petitions from the provinces, coupled with vows of loyalty and appeals against the violence of the Viennese mob. He then sanctioned the abolition of feudal service, and the discontent of the peasantry, which alone had made the revolution possible, being thus removed, the peasant deputies returned to their own constituencies prepared to support the authority that secured their newly won privileges.

The barbarous murder of two Austrian generals by the Magyars stirred the military party to restore

order. Vienna was reduced, and then it was determined to crush the Magyars. The Emperor Ferdinand, who had been compelled to sanction the Hungarian revolution, abdicated in favour of his nephew, the Archduke Francis Joseph, who was bound by no promises, but the Hungarians declared the abdication null and void, and maintained that they were fighting for their legitimate king, Ferdinand.

At first the Hungarians had no success. Saxons, Serbs and Roumanians, alienated by Kossuth's uncompromising nationalism, entered heart and soul into the cause of Austria. The Magyars were defeated again and again, and the Austrian Ministry declared its intention of issuing a centralised constitution for the whole of the empire. This so offended the Magyars that they in despair redoubled their efforts, and victory changed sides. Gorgei, the Hungarian general, passed from one triumph to another, and the leaders of the Magyars might have negotiated an honourable peace, but for Kossuth, who, from having been the best friend of Hungary, with a noble desire to stir her to a love of freedom, now proved to be one of her worst enemies. He was unable to recognise the strength of the forces arrayed against his country; he saw only that Austria was dispirited. He refused all moderate counsels, and giving no thought to the "Iron Tsar" on the frontier longing for an excuse to intervene in favour of the divine right of sovereigns, by formally excluding the house of Habsburg from the throne, he gave him that excuse. Two hundred thousand Russians poured over the frontier; Kossuth appealed in vain

to the Slavs, whose rights he had always hitherto disregarded, and at last the Hungarian army was forced to capitulate. The Tsar Nicholas, true to his stern sense of honour, handed the conquered country over to the Emperor Francis Joseph, without conditions or compensations. This was a sorry day for Hungary. General Haynau, a man whose name has ever since been infamous in history for his cruelty, was sent by the Austrian Ministry to reduce the country to order. Every man, whose name could in any way be connected with the attempt to win freedom, was hanged, and every vestige of liberty was destroyed.

In 1847 political unrest in Germany, as in Austria, was widespread, and the leaders of the party of national reform were desirous of changing the loose confederation that bound the German states together into a close federal union. On the outbreak of revolution in France, insurrectionary disturbances took place everywhere, the revolutionists demanding a national parliament, through which the people should share in the government of a united Germany. A committee of leading Liberals agreed on the summoning of a preliminary parliament, and in March 1848 this assembly met at Frankfort, the governments and sovereigns of the various states either looking on helplessly or attempting to pacify liberal opinion by large promises. In Berlin, Frederick William IV completely lost his head, dismissed his troops, and placed himself in the hands of the people. The hope was now widespread that a united Germany would be at last called into life, but the preliminary Assembly resolved to leave the

settlement of the future German constitution to a national parliament elected by the people. This met on May 18, and, having placed the executive power in the hands of the Archduke John of Austria, acting through a responsible ministry, it set to work at its proper task of building up a constitution. Many weeks were passed in defining the fundamental rights of the people; then arose the difficult question as to what should be the limits of a united Germany, and the exact positions in it of the rival powers of Austria and Prussia. Some proposed that Austria should be excluded altogether from the union, and that the leadership should be given to Prussia, but this idea was very badly received by others, who were anxious to include as many provinces as possible, even those of non-German-speaking peoples.

The King of Prussia gave in his adhesion to a plan for a close union between the non-Austrian states of Germany and a wider union between these and Austria, but Austria demanded that the constitution which it had now succeeded in establishing should be recognised, and the entire Austrian monarchy admitted to the Germanic Confederation on terms which would give it overwhelming pre-ponderance. The parliament refused to entertain the plan, completed the constitution at which it had so long laboured, and chose the King of Prussia as Emperor of Germany. But during its deliberations a dispute between Germany and Denmark over the Schleswig-Holstein Duchies that had been, after some fighting, settled by Prussia without reference to the Germanic states, had proved to them and

to their sovereigns their real powerlessness against the military states of Prussia and Austria. Frederick William, conscientiously convinced that the imperial dignity ought to be restored to the house of Austria, and passionately determined not to accept "a crown of shame" from a revolutionary assembly, had already plucked up courage to promulgate a Prussian constitution, and now refused to entertain the offer. From this moment the action of the Frankfort parliament was paralysed. Austria first, and later Prussia, recalled her deputies; other states followed their example, and finally the whole assembly melted away. After many and long disputes, a Conference was held which restored the old loose federal union of 1815. Two years of revolution had ended only in restoring the old conditions.

CHAPTER XIV

THE CRIMEAN WAR

1853-1856

No opposition had been made by the Powers of Europe to the acknowledgment of Napoleon as Emperor of France, for Prussia and Austria were occupied with their own difficulties, and together with Russia agreed, though with ill grace and under pressure from England, to recognise the empire. But though the Tsar recognised the new Emperor of the French, he refused to address him in the customary way as "my Brother." Napoleon bitterly resented this attitude and prepared to retaliate at the first opportunity. That opportunity soon came. France in 1740 had obtained the right of protecting the Latin Christians in the Ottoman Empire, and also had claims to certain holy places in and about Jerusalem, but for more than a hundred years she had done little or nothing to carry out the duties entrusted to her, and the Greek Church had repaired and occupied the shrines which she had neglected. In 1850, however, Napoleon saw his way to revive the French claim, and so, as he hoped, conciliate Roman Catholic sentiment. After long negotiation the French ambassador suc-

ceeded in obtaining a recognition of his demand from the Porte, but a strong protest was at once entered by Russia. Napoleon probably cared not a straw about the points in question, but to Nicholas I the religious question was all-important. While difficulties had thus arisen between France and Russia, the Tsar in 1853 took occasion to open his mind on the whole Eastern Question to the British ambassador at St. Petersburg. "The Turk," he said, "is a very sick man and it will not do to allow his death to take us by surprise." He then suggested that the Turks should be driven from Europe, and Christian states under Russian protection be erected in the Balkan Peninsula, England receiving compensation in Egypt, Cyprus and Crete; Constantinople to be held permanently by neither Power. Unfortunately the English ministers, to whom, of course, this conversation was reported, completely misunderstood the man with whom they had to deal, and considered that his whole policy was dictated by self-interest, and so lost an opportunity of arriving at a settlement of those differences which for so long caused a strain between the two countries. The English Government did not think the end of the Turk was so near as the Tsar supposed, and considered his future could be settled at a Congress of the Great Powers.

But Nicholas grew impatient and, convinced in his own mind that Turkey could not long survive, sent Prince Menschikoff to Constantinople, with peremptory demands that Russia's right to protect the orthodox subjects of the Porte should be acknowledged. Menschikoff thoroughly enjoyed his

task; he was a blunt soldier, devoted to his master and his ideal for Holy Russia, and scornful of congresses and conventions. The Russian demand was not in itself unreasonable, but the members of the Greek Church were so many, that it would have given the Tsar the right of intervention in almost every Turkish province, and the British ambassador, Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, induced the Porte to reject the proposal, and England thus became a principal in the quarrel. Menschikoff broke off the negotiations and withdrew from Constantinople. Russia threatened to send her army into the Danubian Principalities, and France and England retaliated by ordering their fleets to the mouth of the Dardanelles. Austria now intervened, and through her influence negotiations were transferred to Vienna. The representatives of the Great Powers there assembled agreed on a note to be presented both at St. Petersburg and at Constantinople. Russia accepted their proposals, but the Porte demanded certain amendments. England insisted on submitting these amendments to St. Petersburg, where they were rejected; and, from a memorandum explaining the reasons of rejection, the Powers gathered that the Russian Government had attached a meaning to their proposals which they had not intended to convey. This broke up the Concert of Powers. Austria and Prussia still endeavoured to secure the Porte's acceptance of the original note, while England and France refused to bring pressure to bear on the Sultan, who, with Lord Stratford's approval, called upon Russia to withdraw its troops from the Principalities, intimating

that a refusal to do so, would be considered a declaration of war. Soon after the Turkish army actually crossed the Danube, and some slight engagements took place between the hostile troops. Efforts continued to be made at Vienna to restore peace, but all hope of securing it was lost when news came that a Turkish squadron had been attacked and destroyed by a Russian fleet at Sinope. The news was received with great indignation in France and England, neither country stopping to inquire how far the position had justified the Russian attack, or whether it had not been provoked by their own action in ordering their fleets to pass the Dardanelles. Napoleon, eager for an alliance with England, and above all things eager to play a great part before Europe, proposed that the English and French fleets, which had already passed the Dardanelles ostensibly to protect the Sultan against a possible Mussulman rising, should pass the Bosphorus and "invite" all Russian ships to return to Sevastopol. This action induced the Tsar to refuse new proposals drawn up at Vienna, while the impatience of England for war was so great that the Ministers were unable to resist it; France and England addressed an ultimatum to Russia, and, on the Tsar's refusing to reply to it, declared war, March 12, 1854.

The Russians then advanced across the Danube, but were driven back by the Turks, and, as they retired, by arrangement with Turkey, Austria occupied the Principalities. The English Ministry at this time held that in no event, except that of extreme necessity, ought England to make peace without previously destroying the Russian fleet

in the Black Sea and the fortifications by which it was defended.

At the same time Napoleon, anxious for the French troops to have an opportunity of displaying their powers on land, suggested that the allied forces should be used against Sevastopol, where the Russian war vessels could always take refuge when driven from the sea by the Allies. The French and English armies therefore landed in the Crimea, and on September 20, 1854, was fought the battle of the Alma, which forced Menschikoff to retreat on Sevastopol, and later to the centre of the Crimea. Sevastopol was bombarded, but the Allies' artillery was totally ineffective against the defences of Todleben. Menschikoff again advanced with reinforcements, and the battles of Balaclava (October 25) and Inkermann (November 5) were fought, in both of which the Allies were victorious. Balaclava will probably be remembered the longest, owing to the heroic charge of the English Light Brigade, when, in magnificent discipline, they obeyed an order given by mistake, and the six hundred rode into the Valley of Death.

Sevastopol was still being besieged when winter broke with unusual severity, and a fearful hurricane wrecked twenty-one vessels which were bringing supplies of food and clothing for the sick and wounded. The sufferings of the English soldiers in the winter of 1854-1855 have never been forgotten, and England remembers to her shame, that much of that suffering was caused by carelessness in preparation and greed of gain, when worthless clothing and unwholesome food were sent to the trenches by

dishonest purveyors. Much was done to alleviate the sufferings of the soldiers by Florence Nightingale and her little band of trained nurses. Not only did they succeed in alleviating that suffering, but they made it almost impossible that it should ever recur in Christian lands.

But Russia had suffered even more terribly. Generals January and February, on whom the Tsar Nicholas said he relied, had fought impartially against both combatants, and all help had to be brought to the Russian forces across the dreary steppes. Nicholas could bear no more; his pride could not endure the agony of failure, and in March 1855 he threw away the life that a little care would have saved.

The accession of Alexander II brought new hopes of peace, and Austria determined to join the Allies in trying to secure it, but presently deserted them on the question of the neutralisation of the Black Sea, thus alienating both their sympathy and that of Russia, who expected the support and gratitude of Austria for help previously given in her difficulties.

Cavour, the Piedmontese Prime Minister, felt the importance to his future plans of earning the gratitude of France and England, and in May 1855, 15,000 Italian troops landed in the Crimea. In June an assault on Sevastopol was repulsed, but an attempt to relieve the city was defeated by the French and Italians at the battle of the Tchernaya, August 16. At last, on September 8, after a siege of three hundred and forty-nine days, the French succeeded in taking the fort of the Malakoff, and the fate of Sevastopol was sealed. The Russians

retreated silently after blowing up their forts and sinking their boats.

Alexander agreed to terms of peace, and in March 1856 the Treaty of Paris was signed, by which it was settled—(1) that war vessels of all nations were to be excluded from the Black Sea; (2) that the navigation of the Danube was to be secured; (3) that Turkey was to be recognised as an independent Power and admitted to the Concert of Europe, and that no one was to interfere in the relations between the Sultan and his subjects; (4) that the Russians were not again to fortify Sevastopol or to construct any naval arsenals on the coasts of the Black Sea.

The Powers seemed to have gained their ends, but they had in fact gained very little. They soon learnt the folly of recognising Turkey as one of the civilised Powers, for she remained unreformed; and only fifteen years later, when Prussia had reached the height of her greatness, Bismarck encouraged Russia to disregard the neutrality of the Black Sea, promising to support her as the price of her neutrality in the Franco-Prussian War.

Meanwhile Russian energy, finding no outlet in Europe, sought it elsewhere, and in this way the Treaty of Paris, instead of checking her, probably hastened her march across Central Asia. On the other hand, the policy of the Tsar Nicholas seems to have been sound; to oust the Turks from Europe would not have sensibly increased Russian power, while the process of freeing the Christian states began inevitably a few years later, when Moldavia and Wallachia were united to form the state of

Roumania, under Prince Charles of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen.

Immediately after the Crimean War the attention of England was fully occupied by affairs in India, where a mutiny had broken out among the Sepoy troops. The first rising took place at Meerut, May 10, 1857; with the capture of Lucknow by the English in the following March the mutiny was quelled.

CHAPTER XV

THE UNIFICATION OF ITALY

1851-1862

THE next great event that stirred Europe after the Crimean War was the attempt made by Italy to free herself from the power of Austria. The part played by Sardinia in the Crimean War had been a strange one, for she had no cause of quarrel with the Tsar's government, but Count Cavour, the great minister of Victor Emmanuel, realised that the Italians could never by themselves drive the Austrians from the peninsula, and that Italy, in order to realise her dream of unity, must have allies. It was this that determined him to secure the friendship of England and France.

Victor Emmanuel was twenty-nine when he came to the throne; he was gay and good-humoured, brave and chivalrous, and possessed of no mean political capacity. He "was an intrepid soldier, served by an incomparable minister, Cavour." It has been said that while we find in history many examples of statesmen, diplomats, scholars and heroes, we find few instances of men like Cavour, who could be all these and more. He began to prepare Piedmont in a time of rest for the struggle

that he knew lay before her, and worked industriously to strengthen all her resources. He devoted special attention to her railways, adapting the gauge of the Italian lines to the French system, and started the piercing of the first of the great tunnels through the Alps that connect the two countries.

From the beginning of the war, the ally on whom Victor Emmanuel chiefly relied was Napoleon III, who had taken part in his younger days, as a private individual, in risings in Italy, and after Novara had intervened on her behalf with the Austrian Government. In 1852, before the Empire was established, he had formally promised an envoy of Victor Emmanuel to do something for Italy, as soon as he should have restored the power and credit of France. Now he was startled to a remembrance of his promise, and Cavour was helped in his plans, by an event that we should have expected to have an entirely different effect. An Italian named Orsini made an attempt on the Emperor's life, January 14, 1858, and a letter from him to Napoleon, written on the eve of his execution, in which he adjured Napoleon to give independence to Italy, and assured him that till he did so, both his own peace, and that of Europe, would be a "chimæra," was published in the French official paper, the *Moniteur*. Fears of fresh attempts on his life, combined with his inclinations, thus induced Napoleon to take up the Italian cause.

Soon after this, July 1858, Napoleon, under pretence of taking the waters at Plombières, met Cavour, and in a mysterious interview which lasted

seven hours, and of which Cavour wrote the notes on the table of a little inn, arranged the means by which Austria should be induced to take the initiative in declaring war. No peace was to be made till the Austrians had been expelled from Italian soil. In return Napoleon stipulated for the cession of Nice and Savoy, the cradle of the royal house of Piedmont, and for the marriage of one of the upstart Bonapartes with the Princess Clothilde of the proud house of Savoy. These arrangements were confirmed by a formal offensive and defensive alliance, December 1858. In order to make Austria appear the aggressor, Victor Emmanuel entered on a system of provocation. At the opening of the Parliament in 1859 he declared that he could not "remain insensible to the cry of grief that arose to him from so many parts of Italy." Almost immediately afterwards, Cavour asked for a vote of £50,000 to complete the armaments of the Sardinian kingdom. Austria replied by concentrating her troops in Lombardy, and, believing the reports spread by the Italians themselves, that they were not yet ready, ordered Victor Emmanuel to disarm within three days or war would be declared.

Victor Emmanuel declined this ultimatum, and the Austrian army passed the frontier, April 29. The same day part of the French army crossed the Alps, while the rest disembarked at Genoa, and Napoleon announced that he intended to make Italy free from the Alps to the Adriatic.

On May 20 the first battle of the war was won by the French at Montebello; on May 30 the Italian forces were successful at Palestro, and good

tidings came of a troop of irregulars, led by Garibaldi, in the country round the Italian lakes.

On June 4 the great battle of Magenta was fought and won, and Victor Emmanuel and Napoleon made a triumphal march through the streets of Milan, the enthusiastic Italians crowding round to kiss the feet of him whom they believed to be their deliverer, but who even then was beginning to be afraid of the results of his work.

Victor Emmanuel now declared Lombardy annexed to Piedmont. Tuscany drove out her Austrian Grand Duke, and declared for the King; Modena and Parma, whose rulers had fled, also gave in their adhesion to Piedmont. Romagna proclaimed Victor Emmanuel dictator pending a settlement, and the revolt spread through the Marches and Umbria, though it was suppressed in these latter by the Pope's mercenaries. The Austrian Emperor now took the command in person, hoping to defeat the Allies before the arrival of reinforcements. The two armies came suddenly on one another at five in the morning near the little village of Solferino, June 24. A desperate struggle of twelve hours ensued, when the Austrians were compelled to retreat, in the midst of a storm so heavy that it stayed the pursuit of the French. This battle was one of the greatest of the nineteenth century, for more than 260,000 men were engaged, supported by 800 cannon.

It seemed as though the Austrians might well now be driven from Venetia and Italy freed from their presence. But Napoleon's heart was failing him, he had no wish to see a strong united Italy, and he

was afraid of the attitude of Prussia, who, though she was quite willing to see Austria weakened, had no desire to see France too strong. So in the hour of their triumph, to the dismay of the Italian patriots, Napoleon III met the Emperor Francis Joseph at Villafranca and proposed an armistice when terms of peace might be discussed, July 11. We have no record of what passed at Villafranca, but can well realise that it must have been a moment of deep humiliation for Austria, while Napoleon satisfied his greatest desire in dealing directly with a legitimate Emperor. The arrangements finally agreed to were that Lombardy and Parma should be handed over to Piedmont, but that Tuscany and Modena should be restored to their Dukes, and Venetia, with the fortresses of the Quadrilateral, should remain to Austria. This arrangement was not only a crushing blow to Victor Emmanuel, but an insult, as he had not even been consulted. At first he talked of carrying on the war alone, but he soon saw the impossibility of such action and the need of accepting "the infamous treaty." Cavour, however, could not control his indignation; he rushed in great excitement into the King's presence, his face scarlet with passion, and said in plain words what he thought of Napoleon's conduct in this underhand desertion of his allies; he advised his master to reject the terms of peace, to resign, in fact to do anything rather than consent to a treaty, in the making of which neither he nor his minister had been consulted. But the King refused to listen to his desperate counsels, and that Victor Emmanuel was right, and Cavour wrong in his despair, was soon

shown by the way in which the will of the Italians, the skill of Cavour himself and the audacity of Garibaldi made hay of these decisions of emperors and their ambassadors. Scarcely a year and a half after Villafranca, the union of the Duchies, of the greater part of the States of the Church, and of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, with the kingdom of Piedmont, was an accomplished fact. The union of central Italy with Piedmont came about peaceably by the spontaneous will of the people between August 1859 and March 1860; the annexation of south Italy between August and December 1860 was the result of a war of conquest.

Napoleon insisted on the immediate cession to France of Nice and Savoy, the price promised for his help, but which he had failed to earn when he agreed to the peace of Villafranca. He had not freed Italy from the "Alps to the Adriatic," but the chief reason he gave for stopping short of his promise was good, namely the conviction that further French successes would certainly bring Prussia into the field.

Immediately after the armistice of Villafranca, and secretly encouraged by Cavour, the Assemblies of the Central States voted for union with the Sardinian kingdom. Victor Emmanuel said he could not accept the sovereignty without the consent of Europe, so Modena, Parma, Romagna and Tuscany formed themselves into a republic, adopted the Sardinian coinage, did away with all customs duties between themselves and Piedmont, and chose as regent a relation of Victor Emmanuel. Then a plebiscite was organised, union with Sardinia was

voted by an immense majority, and Victor Emmanuel did not, this time, refuse his consent. The Powers recognised the accomplished fact, April 1860. But Cavour was not yet satisfied. "They have stopped me from making Italy by diplomacy from the north," he said, "I will make it with revolution from the south." Sicily was already in revolt and Garibaldi was eager to go and place himself at its head, on condition that the rising took place in the name of Victor Emmanuel. He applied to the King and Cavour for authorisation and help. Openly they could do nothing, having no quarrel with Naples, but secretly they gave Garibaldi every countenance in their power. Garibaldi, with his thousand volunteers, sailed from Genoa May 1860, and within a month the island was won, the Neapolitan army, some 20,000 strong, withdrawn to the mainland, and the king, Francis II, driven out. One or two forts and towns alone remained to the Neapolitans. These were soon reduced, and then Garibaldi was ready to attack Naples. He passed the Straits of Messina, and without any serious opposition entered Naples, where he was acknowledged as dictator.

What Garibaldi might eventually do, surrounded as he was by republican followers of Mazzini, caused Cavour some anxious moments. "Italy," he wrote, "must be saved from foreigners, evil principles—and madmen." A rising in Rome with the Pope at its head, in favour of a legitimist crusade against the Empire in France, increased his anxiety, and he determined that the time for action had come. He summoned Cardinal Antonelli, the Pope's secretary for foreign affairs, to dismiss his Papal

"adventurers," and on his refusal the Italian forces entered the States of the Church. The Papal troops were soon annihilated, and Victor Emmanuel at the head of his army crossed the Neapolitan frontier to aid and also to control Garibaldi, who was in a somewhat critical position owing to the concentration of the troops of Francis II on the Volturno. Garibaldi agreed to submit the question of the junction of Naples and Sicily to the Italian kingdom, to the decision of the popular assemblies, which at once voted for union. Meanwhile, the Italian forces advanced and beat the troops of Francis II in several engagements, forcing them, with the King and Queen, to find refuge in the fortress of Gaeta, which was not taken till 1861. The meeting between Victor Emmanuel and Garibaldi took place October 25, 1860, when Garibaldi saluted the former as King of Italy, and a fortnight later rode by his side into Naples.

The Parliament that met at Turin February 18, 1861, included deputies from Naples, Sicily, Umbria and the Marches, and on March 17 of the same year the kingdom of Italy was proclaimed, and all Italy save Venice and Rome was united under Piedmont's king, Victor Emmanuel.

Garibaldi was anxious to snatch the prize of Rome at once, but Cavour, who also believed that Rome was the true capital of Italy, preferred to wait rather than risk European war, and, worn out by his long life of anxiety, he died too soon (1861) to see this consummation of his plans and hopes. A time of intrigues and disputes between Garibaldians, Mazzinians and the Italian ministry.

followed. At length Garibaldi grew impatient, and on July 29, 1862, appeared at Palermo and raised the cry "Rome or death." On August 24 he crossed the Straits in spite of a royal proclamation disavowing his action and threatening him with the most rigorous penalties of the law. At Aspromonte he was met by the royal troops and was wounded and taken prisoner. Italy had yet some years to wait before she gained her true capital.

CHAPTER XVI

THE UNIFICATION OF NORTH GERMANY

1864-1867

THAT Italy was free to work out her own salvation was due to the rapidly approaching struggle between Prussia and Austria, that was to end in the formation of a great German Empire out of a number of petty states with no power or influence in themselves. German unity could not be much longer postponed, and it was only a question to which of the two great German Powers the leadership should fall.

In 1858 the unbalanced mind of Frederick William IV of Prussia gave way and William, Prince of Prussia, assumed the Regency. He was a man with many kingly qualities, not the least important of which was his capacity for choosing his counsellors and listening to their advice, and Bismarck, who had constantly refused office under Frederick IV, came readily to his aid. Bismarck would allow nothing to stand in the way of his plans, and his aim was the unity of Germany under Prussian leadership.

Count Bismarck was a very remarkable man, and he influenced the whole history of Europe in the nineteenth century more than anyone else. He was tall and powerfully built, with a will that rarely yielded

to that of another, and a brain that could grasp all political and military problems. He had a perfect knowledge of French, spoke excellently in English, and had a working knowledge of Russian; his dream was the unity of Germany by and for Prussia, and he was ready to ally himself with anyone who would aid him in the realisation of this project, and to fight anyone who should oppose it. Though at times brutally frank, he had a genius for deceit, and no one better knew how to prepare the snare for those whom he meant to destroy. He declared that great political problems could only be solved by "blood and iron," not by speeches; and it was by means of three wars in six years—the war against Denmark, the war against Austria, and the war against France, the last planned and willed by himself alone—that he solved the great problem of the unification of Germany.

A rising in Poland (1863–1864), due in part, unfortunately, to reforms by the Tsar for which the country was not then prepared, and which ended in the crushing of the Poles and the withdrawal of the privileges previously granted them, helped forward the plans of Bismarck; for Prussia's support of Russia on that occasion assured Russian neutrality in the struggle with Austria, that Bismarck clearly foresaw would be necessary to settle their rival claims in Germany.

In the war against Denmark, Bismarck saw his opportunity for aggrandising Prussia and for preparing from afar the rupture with Austria. The King of Denmark held the duchies of Schleswig, Holstein and Lauenburg, but Holstein and Lauen-

burg formed an integral part of the Germanic Confederation, and Schleswig was indissolubly connected with Holstein. The population of Holstein and Lauenburg was entirely German, that of Schleswig half-German, half-Danish. The Germans of Germany and the Germans of Schleswig desired the entrance of that duchy into the German Confederation. The Danes of Denmark and the Danes of Schleswig wished its annexation by Denmark. The question gave rise to war in 1848, but the peace that concluded it left things as they were. Difficulties arose again very shortly because the Crown of Denmark was likely soon to descend in the female line, and the duchies acknowledged Salic law. By the Protocol of London, 1852, the right of the female heirs of Christian VIII to the succession to the duchies was acknowledged, and the Duke of Augustenburg, the male heir, resigned his claim. But the Danish party in Schleswig continued their efforts to secure its annexation to the kingdom of Denmark, and disputes between them and the German party were unending. At the beginning of 1863 Frederick VII took measures preparatory to incorporating the duchy with Denmark; the German Confederation protested, but Frederick took no heed. At this crisis he died, and Christian IX, married to the niece of Christian VIII, was declared his successor, in virtue of the Protocol of 1852, both in Denmark and the duchies. He confirmed the actions of his predecessor and ratified a constitution incorporating Schleswig with Denmark. But the duchies were claimed by the male heir, Prince Frederick of Sonderburg-Augustenburg, on the plea

that his father's resignation did not affect him, and the German Confederation declared war in his favour. Bismarck then intervened, and under the pretext that the Confederation had acted too hastily, proposed to Austria that she and Prussia should act together in the matter. Austria accepted the proposal, and on February 1, 1864, the Austrian and Prussian forces crossed the frontier. Denmark should now have refused to fight, as the Powers would then have probably intervened, but Bismarck, with his usual duplicity, caused its king to believe that as soon as he took up arms England would come to his aid. This was absolutely false, but it determined Christian to fight. The result was not for a moment doubtful. Within a fortnight the Danes were driven from the duchies, and soon after the Allies pressed into Jutland. The King of Denmark was compelled to submit and to sign a treaty (October 1864) renouncing all his rights in the duchies to the two Powers, who arranged for their joint occupation. But Austria, now dimly perceiving that she had been made the cat's-paw of Prussia, soon began to support the claims of the Duke of Augustenburg, which were enthusiastically upheld by the German Confederation, by a large party in Prussia, and even by the Crown Prince Frederick. Bismarck from the first, however, had determined upon their annexation to the Prussian Crown, for he meant to possess the harbour of Kiel, which, by means of a canal such as has since been made, would give Prussia a waterway from the Baltic to the North Sea.

The joint occupation of the duchies continued to

give rise to constant disputes, and as neither Austria nor Prussia was as yet quite prepared for war, a compromise, known as the Convention of Gastein, was agreed upon August 5, 1865, by the terms of which Schleswig was to be occupied by Prussia, and Holstein by Austria, while the little Duchy of Lauenburg was annexed by Prussia. This convention was a diplomatic triumph for Prussia, as it practically denied the claims of the Duke of Augustenburg, and therefore when Austria was led by circumstances to support them, she could always be accused of breaking her treaty obligations.

Bismarck was now busy preparing the way for the coming struggle with Austria. The first step was to secure French neutrality; this was not difficult, for Napoleon, believing that Austria was sure to win, was willing to see her weakened, hoping that a weakened Germany would enable him to regain the Rhine frontier. He therefore met Bismarck at Biarritz, where he was easily made the dupe of that astute minister, who led him to believe that in return for his neutrality, he would receive some rectification of frontier. Bismarck next concluded a commercial treaty with Italy, forestalling Austria in the matter, who retaliated by stirring up Holstein to agitate in favour of the Duke of Augustenburg. Bismarck, accusing Austria of not keeping to her agreement, brought the alliance between the two countries to an end, and made a formal treaty with Italy, by which the latter agreed to declare war against Austria if Prussia was at war with her within three months. Italy's price to be the cession of Venetia.

Bismarck now had to ensure the declaration of war within the three months. He put forth a plan for the reform of the German Confederation that absolutely excluded Austria, while Prussian troops occupied Holstein as an answer to Austria's support of Augustenburg. Augustenburg appealed to the Diet against Prussia, who made it clear that, in the event of her victory in the coming war, those states of Northern Germany that voted against her would cease to exist as sovereign states. The Diet, by a majority of 9 to 6, supported Austria; but Prussia was well prepared, and Moltke had already assured Bismarck of success in war. He was not mistaken; the Austrian army was badly armed and badly generalled, and when in June 1866 the Prussians crossed the border and occupied Saxony and Hanover, the Hanoverian army surrendered. The Prussians then advanced to meet the Austrians, and on July 2 the decisive battle of Sadowa was fought. The victory of the Prussians, owing chiefly to the jealousy of the Bavarians, who held aloof, was complete and final. "Your Majesty," said Moltke to King William, "has won not only the battle, but the campaign." The Prussian troops were eager to press their advantage and enter Vienna, but Bismarck restrained them. He foresaw that there would be trouble with France before his plan for uniting Germany could be accomplished, and was already considering how to restore the old friendship with Austria, that, in the coming struggle, would be so necessary to him. He therefore insisted that peace should be concluded on terms that were not too humiliating for Austria, and on

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August 23, 1866, peace was signed at Prague. Prussia annexed Hanover, parts of Bavaria and Hesse Darmstadt, Schleswig-Holstein and the city of Frankfort, and also became head of a North German Confederation embracing all states north of the Main. Those to the south of that river were formed into a South German Confederation, independent of, but able to enter into, treaty relations with the North. Venetia was ceded to Italy in return for her attack on the Austrians in Bohemia; thus Italian unity was completed.

Napoleon, who now demanded the reward of his neutrality, was bluntly told that any rectification of the frontier would mean war, and that in that war all Germany would be at one. Finding it useless to look to the Rhine, Napoleon turned his attention to Luxemburg, and persuaded the King of Holland, to whose crown it was attached, to sell his rights in it to France. Germany was furious, as the right of garrisoning the fortress of Luxemburg city, regarded as the gate of Lower Germany, was hers. A Conference of Powers met in London to settle the question, and on May 11, 1867, the Treaty of London was signed, by which Luxemburg was declared neutral territory. Holland retained the sovereignty, but undertook to destroy the fortifications of Luxemburg itself.

Though after the Treaty of Prague Austria was no longer a member of the German Confederation, in some ways she emerged stronger than before from the struggle, for an understanding had become possible with Hungary, no longer uneasy that the Austrian Empire was based on German ascendancy.

A dual monarchy was established. Hungary was to remain under its own government; "the two halves of the monarchy were to be absolutely independent except for foreign affairs, finance and military matters. The three ministerial departments concerned with these affairs form the sole ministry common to the Austro-Hungarian state, and are presided over by the Chancellor of the Empire." The Emperor of Austria, Francis Joseph, was separately crowned King of Hungary with the crown of St. Stephen. Sixty members elected by the Hungarian Diet and sixty elected by the Austrian Reichsrath meet every year at Vienna and Buda-Pesth alternately to consider imperial questions. The Germans and Magyars of Austria were satisfied with this arrangement, but great bitterness of feeling remained among the Slavs of the Empire, who felt that their nationality had not been sufficiently recognised.

CHAPTER XVII

THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR

1867-1870

WE have seen that the Northern states of Germany were united and the ascendancy of Prussia acknowledged, after the defeat of the Austrians at Sadowa. But it was clear that Bismarck would not rest until the Southern states of Bavaria, Wurtemberg and Baden joined the Northern Confederation, and he held that the South German states could not be permanently retained as members of a united Germany, until their dislike of Prussia was lost in common action against their ancient enemy France. After the Italian campaign of 1859, Napoleon III had been the foremost figure in Europe. He had defeated Russia in the Crimea, broken the power of Austria in Italy, and, by insisting on his price in Italy though without completing his task, had added Savoy and Nice to his dominions. His position, however, had been somewhat shaken by his encouragement of the Polish insurrection, with his subsequent failure to aid it, thus alienating both Russia and his own people, who were strongly in sympathy with the Poles; and it was still further shaken by the disgraceful outcome of his interven-

tion in Mexico. Here the Archduke Maximilian, relying on French promises of support, had accepted the position of Emperor, but, on a threat from America, Napoleon deserted him, and he was shot by the Mexicans, 1867. The great advance made by Bismarck towards the unification of Germany,—an advance never contemplated by Napoleon when he gave his support to Prussia in her war with Austria,—filled the French Emperor with dismay, and in 1867 Thiers, his Minister of War, declared publicly that Prussia must not be allowed to go further. Bismarck answered by publishing his negotiations with Napoleon after Sadowa, in which the latter had demanded, under threat of war, “compensations” on the left bank of the Rhine, and his own curt refusal to give a foot of German soil. The Southern states, indignant at this proposal for compensation at their expense, hastily concluded an alliance with Prussia. Treaties were signed which practically placed the whole of South Germany under the Prussian military system, and a German Tariff Council was also appointed. Bismarck knew that Prussia was ready, and awaited the moment for war.

Napoleon III also wanted war though France was not ready, and he might have known this if he would, for Colonel Stöffel, his military attaché in Berlin, never ceased informing the Emperor of the superior organisation of the Prussian army; but Napoleon refused to listen, and when the war was over several of Stöffel's reports were found unopened in the Emperor's bureau. In parliament, M. Thiers too repeated the same warnings, but

Napoleon was greatly under the influence of his wife, the Empress Eugénie, a beautiful narrow-minded woman, easily led by bad advisers, incapable of understanding the needs of her country, and whose one aim was to secure the throne for her son "Lou-lou." She hoped to gain popularity for the Empire by successful war.

Both countries now looked round for foreign alliances. Russia promised Bismarck neutrality, and, on condition of her denouncing the Black Sea clauses of the Treaty of Paris, even help, if Austria took up arms. Austria was friendly to Napoleon on the whole, though at the same time there was a party in that country opposed to any action against Germany.

Napoleon expected gratitude from Italy, but the clerical influence at Paris that prevented him from withdrawing his support from the temporal power of the Pope, roused indignation which was increased by the help given to the Pope, by the French, against a raid of Garibaldi. The two countries promised goodwill and nothing more.

It was the affairs of unhappy Spain that brought on the actual outbreak of hostilities. The Carlist wars had left the country unsettled and impoverished. Isabella, who was pleasure-loving and superstitious, gave the Government into the hands of a few incapable favourites. At last, in despair at the general disorder, in 1868 Marshal Prim raised the standard of revolt, and found that the army and the bulk of the nation were at his back. Isabella fled to France, and it was decided to settle the future Government of the country by establishing a

constitutional monarchy. But who would consent to rule? The crown of Spain was no enviable possession. At last Prim thought that he had found an acceptable candidate in Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern Sigmaringen, a distant relative of the reigning house of Prussia, but more closely related to Napoleon, and a Roman Catholic. Prince Leopold, after some pressure, accepted, subject to the approval of King William as head of the family. This was given, and it was decided that the crown should be formally offered to him. But the news that a Hohenzollern was to be raised to the throne of Spain roused the French to fury, and the Government declared that France would not tolerate the establishment of any Prussian Prince on the throne of Spain, and said that the proposal was an attempt to unite the countries and upset the balance of power, by restoring the empire of Charles V. Benedetti, the French Ambassador, was sent to Ems, where King William was taking the waters, to treat with him direct. The King readily admitted that the candidature of Prince Leopold ought to be dropped, and dropped it accordingly was by Prince Leopold himself, who renounced it in the interests of peace. Here we should have expected the incident to end, but the French War Minister, Count Grammont, knowing the wishes and perhaps following the instructions of the war party at Paris, demanded that the Prussian king should promise that on no future occasion would he authorise the renewal of the Prince's candidature. King William gave a courteous refusal to this unprecedented demand, and his telegram from Ems saying what

he had done reached Bismarck, Roon and Moltke as they were sitting gloomily together in the Chancellor's room, for Leopold's withdrawal had been taken in Paris as a humiliation for Prussia. The King said that Bismarck might publish his telegram if he chose. Bismarck saw that the King's answer had been so worded as to avoid giving offence, and that thus war might yet be averted. He saw also, that by omitting certain words, the whole tone of the telegram would be altered, and that, in the present temper of the French people, it would appear insulting. Turning to Moltke, he asked if he was ready for war, and on receiving an affirmative answer he drew his pencil through several parts of the telegram, which was published thus abbreviated. "It will have," he said, "the effect of a red rag on the French bull." The result was as he expected, for no sooner did this account of the interview reach Paris than National Assembly and people were wild with excitement and indignation, and the declaration of war was signed amid shouts of "à Berlin," July 19, 1870.

Bismarck seized this moment to alienate public sympathy from France by publishing a treaty with Prussia in the French Ambassador's handwriting, the object of which was the annexation of Luxembourg. Though the ambassador protested that the treaty had been dictated by Bismarck himself, it yet proved that, in spite of the Treaty of London, France had by no means relinquished her ambitious projects. England at once demanded a guarantee of the absolute neutrality of Belgium. This was signed both at Paris and Berlin, August 11.

CHAPTER XVIII

THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR (*continued*)

1870-1871

THE King of Prussia, with Bismarck, Moltke and Roon, soon completed all necessary arrangements for the war. The Prussian military system which had been gradually worked out since the time of Napoleon I, was now so complete and so universal that Prussia was able to put, not an army, but practically a nation, into the field; and more than this, every man was able, when called out, to draw his full equipment from his own village, thereby leaving the railways free for the movement of troops. Moltke also had trained a general staff, from among the cleverest men of the nation, to help him in his schemes of organisation, while his plan of campaign had been prepared long before the actual outbreak of hostilities, and was kept carefully up to date. The army was well supplied with maps of France, more complete in their details than those possessed by the French themselves.

Moltke's plan was to invade France with three great armies and a general reserve, to find and crush the French field armies, and then to concentrate on Paris.

The French army meanwhile had been living on its past reputation, and neglecting to keep itself up to modern requirements. Preparation for war, in time of peace, had been neglected, and this is absolutely fatal to rapidity in the field. The whole organisation was highly centralised, and the officers were out of touch with the men; no details were worked out; the arrangements for the equipment of the men were unpractical, and involved an immense amount of cross travelling, which disorganised the railways just at the moment at which it was most necessary that they should be clear for the movement of troops, and yet Lebœuf, the French general, had boasted "that all was ready to the last button"!

Napoleon intended to open the war by assuming the offensive, but on the thirteenth day of mobilisation, he found that there was not a single corps ready to take the field.

At the beginning of the war, the French gained a first, last and very slight victory at Saarbrücken, then Douay was beaten at Weissenburg, and Mac-Mahon, greatly outnumbered, was forced to retreat at Wörth by the Crown Prince's army. Though the Germans had won a great victory, the effect of which—on the French army—cannot be over-estimated, the German losses were even greater than those of the French, and night prevented their pursuit of the retreating enemy. At the same time, in Lorraine, a large force of the French was driven back by a comparatively small body of Germans, owing to the inability of the French to take advantage of favourable conditions. Alsace and Lorraine, with

the exception of their fortresses, were now in the hands of the Germans, and the French were in full retreat towards Châlons and Metz. Moltke advanced, with the greatest care, and detached troops to surprise Strassburg, but in this they failed, and were compelled to besiege it.

At this point the Emperor, in ill health and realising his incompetence, gave over the command to Marshal Bazaine. Moltke now expected the French to retreat behind the Meuse, and this, no doubt, would have been their wisest course; but Bazaine, on taking over the command, gave up the idea of defending the line of the Meuse, and ordered a retreat on Verdun. The German forces came into touch with the French at Rezonville, where an engagement took place that was rendered memorable by a splendid charge of the Prussian cavalry.

The retreat on Verdun was still possible, but the demoralised French army could not resist the attraction of the fortress of Metz, and Bazaine ordered the army to seek its shelter. He gave battle to the Prussians between St. Privat and Gravelotte, and, in spite of heavy losses inflicted on the enemy, was completely defeated, August 18. His army took refuge under the guns of Metz and was there surrounded.

The Germans left an army of investment round Metz, and a general advance was begun on Châlons, where were MacMahon and the Emperor. In face of the general demoralisation, and want of necessities in this army, MacMahon advised falling back on Paris, in order to gain time for organisation and to be able to draw on the resources of the whole of

France. The Emperor agreed, but the Empress and her advisers were afraid to face the consequences of a retreat that would seem to abandon the army of Bazaine to its fate. MacMahon, attempting to compromise between what he felt to be best and the wishes of the Empress, retired on Reims. Though still wishing to retreat on Paris, and frankly realising the danger of any other proceeding, he was induced, by a despatch from Bazaine announcing his intention to break out from Metz, to advance to the Meuse to help him.

As soon as Moltke received intelligence of MacMahon's movements, he threw his armies northward to intercept him. MacMahon, convinced of the hopelessness of his task, gave orders for a retreat, but received a telegram from Paris saying, "If you desert Bazaine there will be a revolution here," and determined to risk defeat rather than the disgrace which he was sure would be his portion if he retreated.

Meanwhile the Prussians were steadily advancing, and by September 1 the French army was hemmed into a triangle, with the town of Sedan at its base, where it was encircled by heights, from which the enemy could pour a constant artillery fire.

MacMahon was wounded early in the day, and twice the command changed hands in the course of the action. Five cavalry regiments, trying to open a passage for the army, charged again and again through the enemy's skirmishers, forcing from King William himself the exclamation, "The brave fellows." But it was useless, they were swept away by the hostile artillery, and at five o'clock Napoleon,

who had vainly sought for death, seeing the whole army surrounded and shelled, ordered the white flag to be hoisted over Sedan. Moltke stated the Prussian terms of peace. "They are," he said, "very simple. The whole French army must surrender with arms and belongings; the officers may retain their arms, but will be prisoners of war along with their men" (September 2, 1870). When Napoleon heard these terms he sought an interview with King William to entreat for more favourable conditions; failing to obtain them the final surrender was made at a weaver's cottage. When all was over the weaver's wife asked the broken Emperor, "Can I do anything for your Majesty?" "Only pull down the blinds," was the reply. Later Napoleon surrendered his sword to Moltke and became a prisoner of war in the Palace of Wilhelmshöhe. Within a month the whole of the army of a great military empire had been dispersed, or closely invested.

But the French nation did not admit defeat. After Sedan the Empire was impossible; a revolution took place in Paris, the Third Republic was proclaimed, and the Empress fled to England. A Government of National Defence was constituted with General Trochu at its head, Jules Favre as Minister of War, and Gambetta as Minister of the Interior. Favre engaged in negotiations with Bismarck to discover what terms the Germans would grant, but as the new Government had already announced its intention not to yield an inch of French soil nor a stone of her fortresses, the discussion ended abruptly. The German army pressed on to Paris, and by the

19th of September 147,000 men were assembled before its walls. The Government left Paris before the enemy closed it round and established itself at Tours.

We now know from German writers how great, in spite of their successes, were the difficulties of the invaders at this period. Their army had been reduced by the detachments required for masking various fortresses and for protecting their lines of communication, and by sickness; a barely sufficient force remained to invest Paris. The capture of Toul and Strassburg, by setting free the troops besieging them and opening direct railway communication with Germany, gave some relief, but with the fall of the Emperor the whole character of the war had changed. The entire French people were now fighting in defence of their native land, supplies were only obtained with difficulty, patrols were cut off and correct information could hardly be gained, as the cavalry were afraid to go far without support. On October 7 Gambetta escaped in a balloon from Paris and reached Tours. In a few weeks, owing to his fiery patriotism, energy and capacity for work, a new army was created, and ordered to advance on Orleans. But success in this direction was counterbalanced by the surrender of Bazaine at Metz, October 27. Had he only held out another fortnight the French army that had recaptured Orleans might have advanced on Paris, but now the forces that had been investing Metz were free to reinforce the besieging army. The guerilla warfare too, which the French had at first waged with considerable success, was now checked by the cruel severities of the Prussians. Villages and towns were pillaged

and set on fire without mercy, and their leading inhabitants shot if any guerilla attack was made in their neighbourhood.

Gambetta, however, did not lose heart and still urged an advance on Paris, but though the French attack was gallantly delivered, it failed owing to the want of training of the troops, which made them incapable of combined movements; yet again they were defeated, and after severe fighting were driven back even from Orleans, which the Germans re-occupied December 4.

Meanwhile Paris was not idle, sortie after sortie was made, but all were unsuccessful, and at length the city relapsed into the dull struggle with hunger. Gambetta and De Freycinet still refused to despair, and toiled at the creation of new forces; and a French army under Chanzy still held out stubbornly on the Loire, but was at length compelled to retire on Le Mans, a retreat conducted with the utmost ability. Resistance was now renewed in the north, where an army under Faidherbe fought the Germans bravely for three days, but was forced to retire December 24. On December 27 the bombardment of Paris began, but Gambetta made yet another effort to avert its fall, this time by striking at the German lines of communication; but the attempt failed, and one army under Bourbaki was compelled to take refuge across the Swiss frontier, while the other, under Chanzy, was defeated in front of Le Mans. Faidherbe, who was still active in the north, was irretrievably defeated a week later at St. Quentin, January 19, 1871. Paris had now reached the limits of endurance. A sortie *en masse* on January 19 was driven back, and four days

later Favre arrived at Versailles to open negotiations for capitulation. The Provisional Government at length recognised that there was no hope of foreign intervention. Italy was busy securing Rome, and Austria and England were fully occupied with the action of Russia, who announced she would no longer be bound by the Black Sea clauses of the Treaty of Paris and signed a convention with Turkey declaring the right of both Powers to maintain fleets of any size in that sea. The Sultan's right to close the Bosphorus and Dardanelles to warships was affirmed. Thiers, who had been sent on a mission to the Courts of London, Vienna, St. Petersburg and Florence, to try to obtain mediation, had only brought back a proposal that the Provisional Government should ask for an armistice for the purpose of ascertaining the will of the French people. On January 28 a three weeks' armistice was signed to enable elections to be held for an Assembly that was to meet at Bordeaux to settle the question of peace or war.

The result of the elections showed that France was ready for peace, and the preliminary proposals were signed February 26, 1871, France agreeing to the cession of Alsace and Eastern Lorraine, including the forts of Metz and Strassburg, and to the payment of a war indemnity of two hundred million pounds. Pending the ratification of the treaty, part of France was to be occupied by German troops, and it was stipulated that these troops should be gradually withdrawn from France, as the indemnity was paid. The payment of this enormous sum was made much sooner than at first seemed possible, owing partly to

the wealth of the country, but even more to the thrift and proud honesty of the people. The terms of the treaty were ratified by the Assembly at Bordeaux, which formally pronounced the deposition of Napoleon III and declared him responsible for the ruin of France. The formal treaty was signed at Frankfort, May 10, 1871. Gambetta alone had dissociated himself from all these negotiations, and would still have prolonged the war; many thought that he had already done so too long, but the second period of the war, which was due to his energy, restored the self-respect of France, and impressed even her enemies with her resources, and her marvellous power of resistance.

Bismarck had not only obtained an advantageous peace, but also his chief object in going to war. Already when its first successes practically assured victory to Germany, discussion had begun as to the terms on which the Southern states would join the North German Confederation. The negotiations were protracted over several months, Bavaria, in particular, being unwilling to surrender her independence. At length all difficulties were overcome, and King William was asked to be the head of united Germany with the title of German Emperor. He was formally proclaimed, January 18, 1871, in the Salle des Glaces in the great Palace of Versailles. But Germany still remains a confederation of states more or less independent, each, with its parliament, having authority over all matters not defined in the treaties as imperial. The authority of the Emperor remains based on the military power of Prussia.

CHAPTER XIX

SOUTHERN AND NORTHERN EUROPE AFTER 1870

IT was only after the capitulation of Paris that it became possible to hold a general election in France, and the Assembly then called into being was on the whole conservative and anxious for peace. It met at Bordeaux, and Thiers was appointed "chief of the executive of the French Republic." The task which the Assembly had before it was to re-organise the impoverished country, reconstruct the army, and restore the finances. It at once decided to transport the seat of government from Bordeaux to Versailles, where its work was almost immediately interrupted by a rising of the Paris mob, indignant at the triumphal entry granted to the German troops, at the announcement that the National Guard was to be disarmed—many of its members depending on their pay for a living—at the refusal of the Assembly to sanction an extension of the moratorium which had been established during the siege, and at its determination to take up its quarters at Versailles instead of at Paris.

The insurrection broke out on March 18, 1871, and a revolutionary government known as the Commune was established in Paris. At length

the regular troops after terrible bloodshed drove the Communists out, but the latter so burnt and destroyed as they retired, that the government regained the city to find half the public buildings blackened ruins. The fighting had been of extraordinary barbarity, and Frenchmen had been more cruel to one another than to a foreign foe.

For some time strife between Legitimists, Bonapartists, Orleanists and Republicans continued in the French Assembly, but meanwhile the mass of the people grew accustomed to the Republic, and in 1875 that form of government was finally established. Bismarck meanwhile had bound Germany, Austria and Russia in a Triple Alliance, to which Italy was admitted later.

Italy took advantage of the downfall of France to complete her unity by securing Rome as her capital. Napoleon had undertaken, in a convention with the Government of Florence (1864), to withdraw his troops from Rome within two years, Victor Emmanuel on his side engaging not to attack the actual dominions of the Holy See; and by the end of 1866 the last French troops had evacuated Rome, and the King was able to declare that Italy was free from all foreign domination. The next year Garibaldi, who had never given up his hopes of making Rome the capital of Italy, headed a rising with that object and marched straight on the city, but on November 3, 1867, he was defeated by the Papal troops and his forces mowed down by some French regiments which had returned to Rome to support the Pope. This return of the French troops enabled the Italian Government to cast the con-

vention of 1864 to the winds, and the voice of the whole people, "unanimous and irresistible," demanded the occupation of Rome when, owing to the Franco-German War, the French troops were recalled. Some slight opposition had still to be encountered, and a breach made in the walls before an entrance could be effected, but at length Rome was occupied and became the capital of United Italy, October 7, 1870. There was no one to come to the aid of the Pope, for the Catholic Powers of Europe were offended by the promulgation of the doctrine of "Infallibility," July 1870, which declared that when, in his office as pastor and teacher of all Christians, the Pope defines doctrines concerning faith or morals, such definitions are unalterable. The Italian Government offered the Pope liberal arrangements, but he rejected all terms, and retiring into the Vatican, refused any communication with it, and proclaimed himself a prisoner for conscience' sake.

The crowns of Italy and Spain were now for a short time closely connected, for when Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern Sigmaringen withdrew his candidature for the Spanish throne, Prim approached the Duke of Aosta, a son of Victor Emmanuel II. He had already once declined the proffered crown, but now gave a reluctant assent, November 1870. The experiment might have been a success, had Prim lived, but on December 27 he was shot in the street, and died of his wounds December 30, the very day on which the Duke of Aosta landed at Cartagena. For two years, as Amadeus I, he endured a miserable existence with

every hand against him, then he resigned the crown and left Spain to its old dreary round of intrigue, civil war, anarchy and conspiracy. The Carlists took advantage of the state of affairs to renew their activity, and entered the country from France, July 17, 1873, while those who desired to set up a republic were active in the south. Don Juan de Bourbon, the head of the Carlists, resigned in favour of his eldest son, Don Carlos, who, in a couple of years, managed to establish himself securely in the north, and to surround himself with an army of 75,000 men. The attempt to set up a republic in the south ended merely in anarchy, and Castelar, an able man, was made dictator to save his country from ruin. With Carlist absolutism on the one side, and republican anarchy on the other, the restoration of constitutional government under Alphonso XII, son of Isabella, a lad of sixteen, seemed the only solution, and he was proclaimed king, December 1874. The Carlists were driven out of Valencia and Calabria in the following year, and were completely crushed in 1876; a settlement with the Church and the grant of a constitution gave the country peace and order.

Alphonso XII died in 1885, and a regency under his widow, Maria Christina, followed, until his son, Alphonso XIII, was declared of age, 1902. Queen Christina had to face grave difficulties on her husband's death owing to a family intrigue to oust her from the regency, but she behaved with dignity and judgment, and her devotion to her son strengthened her position.

The only serious crisis that has occurred in Spain,

since the death of Alphonso XII, has been the war with the United States, which resulted in the loss of Cuba and the Philippine islands. Spain never has been able to rule colonies; "the Spaniards," says one writer on the subject, "have never been able to take any other view of a colony than that it should be treated as a milch cow, to be milked for the exclusive benefit of Spanish traders and officials." Constant revolt was met by constant cruel attempts at repression, until at length the United States of America intervened, to put an end to the disgraceful situation; Cuba obtained self-government, and the Philippines were annexed to the United States, 1898. In the following year Spain sold the Carolines and some other islands in the Pacific to Germany, and thus the Spanish colonial empire practically disappeared from the map.

In Portugal Dom Miguel had been deposed and the young Queen Maria restored to her throne in 1834, but, as in Spain, the country underwent a series of revolutions and counter-revolutions. In 1847, Saldanha, a capable soldier, became prime minister, and in spite of difficulties, kept the country at peace, save for one interruption, for the rest of the Queen's reign. She was succeeded by her son, Dom Luiz, who married a daughter of Victor Emmanuel; he died in 1899, and was followed by his son Dom Carlos, who married a Bourbon princess, daughter of the Count of Paris. He was a man of expensive habits, and joined the ministers, a set of self-seeking politicians, in robbing the revenue. In 1907 he brought about a *coup d'état*, and, helped by a resolute minister, prepared to rule without the

Cortes. The people accepted the downfall of the corrupt ministers, but soon found that the change brought no improvement to them. The politicians were, of course, furious at the loss of their places, and on February 1, 1908, the king and his eldest son were murdered while driving through the streets of Lisbon. His second son, Manuel, who was wounded, escaped with the Queen to England. Constitutional government was restored, but this only meant that all power was again in the hands of selfish professional politicians.

The empire established in Brazil disappeared in 1889, and was followed by a republic, and many Portuguese now emigrate to Brazil, where they generally do well.

Sweden throughout the century was but little disturbed by the troubles in Europe. Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's marshals, who was, as we have seen, elected crown prince of that country in 1810, took the name of Charles XIV, when, in 1818, he came to the throne. Though a brilliant soldier, he led his adopted country along the paths of peace. He was a born king and a man of great personal charm. He was careful to surround himself with men of character, was never deaf to an appeal to his benevolence, and loved to hear his people call him father. Owing to his personal influence, power and intellect, progress was made during his reign in every direction; education advanced, rivers were made navigable, canals opened, harbours constructed, agriculture was improved, and manufactures developed. He was succeeded by his son, Oscar I, who was again succeeded by his two sons,

Charles XV and Oscar II, and the internal prosperity of Sweden advanced by leaps and bounds. But during the reign of Oscar II the relations of Sweden with Norway were troubled, and more than once it seemed as if the Union between the two countries was on the point of being wrecked. The dissensions between them had their origin in the demand of Norway for separate consuls and foreign ministers. When, after long negotiations, King Oscar vetoed a bill passed both by the Swedish Riksdag and the Norwegian Storthing for the establishment of separate Norwegian consuls, Norway declared that the Union with Sweden was dissolved. The severance was formally ratified by both countries October 26, 1905, and Norway elected, as her king, Prince Charles, younger son of the Crown Prince of Denmark, and of his wife a Swedish princess. The new king, who was married to the youngest daughter of Edward VII of England, took the name of Haakon VII.

CHAPTER XX

RUSSO-TURKISH WAR AND TREATY OF BERLIN

1875-1878

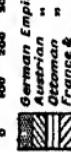
THE Franco-Prussian War was not long over before the Eastern question was again troubling Europe, and in order to understand the difficulties now making themselves felt we must look back at the history of Russia, and of the Balkan States.

Alexander II ascended the throne of Russia when the Crimean War was still raging, but the event with which his name is most often associated, is the emancipation of the serfs in 1861. By this great revolution, which was carried through practically without any outbreak, the serfs were not only released from dependence on the nobles, but had a certain portion of the estates of the latter distributed among them, on condition that in time they paid a certain calculated amount of compensation. The nobility, in general, willingly supported the movement, sacrificing with great generosity a large measure of their cherished rights. In cases where the peasant was industrious, he saved and prospered, but too often he was careless, lazy and drunken, and losing his share of the land sank into far deeper misery than had been his lot as a serf.

EUROPE
IN 1878

EUROPE
IN 1878

Statute Miles



Possessions

EUROPE
IN 1878

TÀI LIỆU

64

rule, and insurrection also broke out among the Bulgarian peasants, who seem to have had little real ground for revolt, as they were well off under a liberal Turkish ruler, but who were stirred by the example of the other nationalities struggling for freedom. It was the atrocious cruelty with which this insurrection was suppressed which roused the indignation of Europe. The "Bulgarian atrocities," too, gave Russia an excellent handle against the Sultan, for now she could go to war with the cause of the Bulgarian Christians as her watchword. In July 1876 Serbia too declared war against Turkey.

In order to understand anything of the politics of Serbia we must go back to the early years of the century, when an insurrection took place in Serbia against Turkish rule, headed by a peasant known as Kara George. After being the hero of many fights, he gained for his fellow-countrymen a certain measure of freedom, but at last he lost heart and retired into Austria. His place was taken by Milosh Obrenovich, also of peasant stock, who tried to gain the same ends as Kara George, by the very different method of coming to terms with the Turks. Kara George, pressed by some of his followers, now returned to Serbia, where, at Turkish suggestion, he was foully murdered by Milosh. This deed was never forgotten or forgiven, and though the descendants of Milosh continued for a time to rule Serbia, there was always a party to support the claims of the descendants of Kara George. Michael, the son of Milosh, who proved a good and able ruler, was murdered by the Kara Georgic party, who were, however, unable to prevent the succession of

Michael's nearest relative, Milan Obrenovich, 1868. He was no military leader and had no desire for war, but he knew that he did not dare to fail in championing a cause for which his rival Peter Kara-georgevich was fighting as a volunteer in Bosnia, and on June 30, 1876, he was dragged into the war.

A day later Montenegro also, led by Prince Nicholas, declared war against the Turks. He was a man of great ability and a splendid soldier, leading a people who in the words of Tennyson were "warriors beating back the swarm of Turkish Islam for five hundred years," and he engaged in the war heart and soul. But meanwhile a revolution had taken place at Constantinople. In May 1876 the Sultan Abd-ul Aziz was deposed, and in August of the same year Abd-ul Hamid was placed on the throne. Under the new régime the Ottoman armies showed unexpected vigour, the Serbians were everywhere defeated, and Serbia was only saved from annihilation by the intervention of Russia, who insisted on the Porte concluding an armistice, which was followed by a definite peace.

The Montenegrins, meanwhile, had fought with considerable success, and the Powers of Europe now tried to intervene with a conference at Constantinople. But its moderate proposals were refused, and instead a constitution was issued by the Sultan, which he said would secure all the demands of the Powers. The patience of Russia was now exhausted. The Tsar said the present state of affairs in the Balkans was intolerable, and if the other Powers would not move then Russia must

act alone. Unfortunately Beaconsfield, the Prime Minister of England, whose attitude towards Russia, owing perhaps to his Jewish origin, was always one of dislike and suspicion, refused all action against Turkey, and Russia sent what was practically an ultimatum to the Porte.

In April 1877 war was declared. Russia signed a convention with the Prince of Roumania for the passage of her troops across his territory; the Porte, regarding Roumania as a vassal state, protested, and ordered the bombardment of a Roumanian town on the Danube, on which, May 21, Roumania declared, not only her own independence, but war.

At first things went favourably for the Turks, but a month later the Russian troops, under Gourko, passed the Danube almost without opposition, crossed the Balkans, took the Shipka Pass in the rear, and seemed about to reach Adrianople. Then again the fortunes of war changed. Gourko was met and defeated by Suleiman Pasha, and was only able with difficulty to maintain his hold on the Pass. The Russians were equally unsuccessful in other quarters; Osman Pasha seized and held Plevna, and though the Russians hurried up large reinforcements, a grand attack on it was driven back with terrible slaughter. The Turks failed, however, to take advantage of their successes; the Roumanians joined the Russians, Todleben assumed the command of the investing army, and Osman Pasha, after a desperate attempt to break through the Russian lines, was compelled, through lack of provisions, to surrender, after a heroic defence of five

months. Everywhere now the Turks were worsted. Two days after the fall of Plevna, Serbia again declared war. In Asia Kars was captured, and Prince Nicholas of Montenegro took Nikshich, the military feat of which he is still most proud. The Russians moved south, one misfortune after another befell the Turks, and when Gourko entered Adrianople (January 1878) they agreed to an armistice.

England watched the advance of Russia with grave uneasiness, and it was her action that had much to do with the conclusion of the armistice. But the English ministers were not in accord; one resigned when the fleet was ordered to Constantinople "as a demonstration," and another was only prevented from following his example by its destination being altered to Besika Bay. On January 31 Russia and Turkey signed a convention, but some of its provisions not being acceptable to the Great Powers, and the Russian force having advanced within a few miles of Constantinople, the British fleet passed through the Dardanelles, and Parliament was asked for a vote of six millions. The situation was critical, and it was evident that the only way of escape was by a European Congress. To the assembling of such a Congress Russia agreed, but before the preliminaries were settled, the Convention of Adrianople had been converted into the Treaty of San Stefano, March 3, 1878, which practically put an end to the Ottoman power in Europe, and also, by creating a large Bulgarian empire, to any hopes for the future entertained by Greece. The independence of Serbia was recognised, and a considerable slice of territory given her,

while the size of Montenegro was trebled, and her independence recognised. Bosnia and the Herzegovina were to be autonomous under a Christian governor-general, and Russia also stipulated for considerable advantages for herself. This treaty was, however, practically torn to shreds by the European Congress which was formally opened, June 13, under the presidency of Count Bismarck, at Berlin.

By the Treaty of Berlin, 1878, the Treaty of San Stefano was greatly modified. Instead of the great Bulgarian state that Russia would have created, stretching from the Danube to the Archipelago, the new principality was to have the Balkans for its southern boundary, and had to submit also to have Serbia enlarged at her expense. South of the Balkans a province to be known as Eastern Roumelia was formed, and placed under the direct authority of the Sultan, though it was to be administered by a Christian governor-general. Bulgaria was thus separated into two states, but nationalities sometimes prove stronger than diplomats, and seven years later their union was effected, a union then supported by England and opposed by Russia. Bosnia and the Herzegovina, according to an agreement made between Russia and Austria before the beginning of the war, were to be occupied and administered by Austria. There seemed perhaps at the time good reason for this arrangement, as the provinces were inhabited by two Slav races, who belonged to three religions, Orthodox, Roman Catholic and Mussulmans; the administration, therefore, of a strong foreign Power seemed the

best means of securing good order and government, and this has undoubtedly been the effect of Austrian rule. Montenegro, like Serbia, was recognised as a sovereign state, but had to be content with a smaller accession of territory than she had been granted by the Treaty of San Stefano. She obtained an outlet on the sea at the Bay of Antivari, but was forced to cede Spizza to Austria, and this she has never forgiven, as it enables Austrian forts to dominate the prince's palace. Servia's independence was recognised, and she received an addition of territory; but Roumanian independence was made conditional on the cession of Bessarabia to Russia in exchange for the barren Dobrudscha, and some other slight territorial compensation; against this condition Prince Charles and his people protested in vain. Thessaly and Epirus were promised to Greece. England obtained Cyprus by a secret treaty already made with the Porte. Beaconsfield and Salisbury, who represented the English Government at the Congress, claimed that they had returned from Berlin with "peace and honour," but only a few years later Lord Salisbury sorrowfully acknowledged that in his pro-Turkish policy he had "backed the wrong horse."

CHAPTER XXI

ARMED PEACE

1870-1914

AFTER the Franco-German war, Western Europe enjoyed a time of comparative peace, but it was an "armed peace," for preparations for war absorbed year after year a larger portion of the resources of all the Great Powers. During the same period certain changes of alliance also took place due to this ever-present fear of war. Immediately after the war with Austria in 1866, Bismarck, while keeping up a good understanding with Russia, urged an Austrian alliance on the King of Prussia, realising that the two nations had no conflicting interests now that Austria had accepted her position outside the German Empire. This alliance was supplemented in 1882 by one with Italy, for which Bismarck had prepared by sowing discord between that country and France. Italy had for many years cherished hopes of a protectorate over Tunis, and so a French expedition to Tunis in 1881, suggested by Bismarck and agreed to by England, in return for French approval of her occupation of Cyprus, naturally led to an estrangement with France and to coolness with England, as Italy felt that she had been badly

used by her former friends. Bismarck promptly taking advantage of the feeling thus aroused, contrived a meeting at Vienna between the Emperor Francis Joseph and Humbert I, who had succeeded his father Victor Emmanuel on the throne, and to the indignation of Italian patriots their King returned an Austrian Colonel, and that Triple Alliance was concluded which lasted down to the outbreak of the war of 1914, though friendly relations with France were re-established in 1898. No change took place in the foreign relations of the country when King Humbert was assassinated by an anarchist in 1900, and the present King Victor Emmanuel III came to the throne.

In 1881, however, a terrible crime in Russia resulted in lessening the good understanding between that country and Germany. On March 13, 1881, the Tsar Alexander II signed a decree which would have laid the foundations of constitutional government in Russia, but in the afternoon of the same day, and before the decree was made public, he was murdered by the explosion of a bomb. The new Tsar, Alexander III, was not inclined to friendship with Germany, and though owing to the efforts of Bismarck the three Emperors met in 1884 and renewed the old understanding, a few years later Bismarck himself, the great supporter of friendship with Russia, was removed from power. In March 1888 the old Emperor William died, and in the following June the death of his son, the Emperor Frederick, brought the present Kaiser, William II, to the throne. Bismarck naturally thought that with the accession of the new sovereign, but lately

acquainted with affairs of Government, his own power would be more firmly established than ever. The young Emperor, however, soon showed that he meant not only to reign but to rule. Others recognised this masterful spirit earlier than did Bismarck, for in 1889 Alexander III, in an interview with the German Chancellor, suggested as one of the points to be considered in an understanding between the two countries, the doubt as to Bismarck's own continuance in office. "He was better instructed than I was," wrote Bismarck bitterly in his Memoirs. The following year he was requested by his young master to resign and went into retirement at Friedrichsruh. After this German relations with Russia became distinctly cooler, and the latter country feeling its isolated position—the Tsar publicly toasted his "only sincere friend Montenegro"—made advances to France; in 1891 the French fleet paid a visit to Cronstadt, the Russian fleet returning the visit in 1893 at Toulon, and a formal alliance followed. This Dual Alliance freed France from that isolation in which it had been Bismarck's policy so carefully to keep her. Since that time the European situation has been governed mainly by this Dual Alliance of France and Russia and the Triple Alliance of Austria, Germany and Italy. Towards the close of the century, there was considerable friction between France and England, owing to the latter's occupation of Egypt, and this led to a certain *rapprochement* between England and Germany, resulting in an agreement which ceded the island of Heligoland to Germany in return for certain important concessions in East Africa, 1890.

Relations between France and England became still more strained in 1898, when the French explorer Major Marchand attempted to raise the French flag over one of the villages of the Soudan, a territory which had just been regained for Egypt by the Sirdar, Sir Herbert Kitchener; but in 1904, mainly owing to the diplomatic tact of the late King Edward VII, a friendly understanding was arrived at between the two Powers, which in 1907 was extended to Russia, and the Triple Entente stood opposed to the Triple Alliance.

Meanwhile relations between Great Britain and Germany did not improve. The German Emperor's telegram to President Kruger in 1896 was naturally resented in England, nor did Germany's attitude throughout the Boer War (1899-1902) help matters, while the English understanding with France, which followed a few years later, was not looked upon with favour in Berlin. In 1905, at the Algeciras Conference the support of Great Britain was given to France, who had in 1903 made a Treaty with the ruler of Morocco, with a view to bringing that country, which was in a state of anarchy, into order. In consequence of this and in order to satisfy the desires of a colonial party in Germany who were anxious to possess a port in Morocco, William II landed at Tangier and afterwards by a sort of ultimatum obtained the dismissal of Delcassé, the French minister responsible for the Treaty with Morocco. France, however, relying on the friendship of England, did not intend to give up her privileged position in Morocco, and though she agreed to the international conference of Algeciras,

to prove that she had no desire for conquest, she asserted her rights in a new agreement with Spain, 1907. In 1909 Germany recognised the political preponderance of France in Morocco, on France agreeing to leave the country open to German trade and enterprise, but in 1911 again made difficulties and sent a gunboat to Agadir.

An important event at the end of the nineteenth century was the Peace Conference at the Hague in 1899. In 1898 the Tzar made a proposal to hold an international conference to arrange a general disarmament, and issued a circular in which he said : " This accumulation of war material and formation of great armaments are transforming the armed peace of our days into a crushing burden, which the peoples have more and more difficulty in bearing. It appears evident that if this state of things continue, it will inevitably lead to the very catastrophe which it was intended to avert, and the horrors of which make every thinking being shudder in anticipation." In answer to this circular the representatives of twenty-six European States, besides those of the United States of America, of Mexico, China, Japan, Persia and Siam, met to consider the possibility of substituting arbitration for war, and to agree on certain rules if warfare was inevitable. Some important work on these lines had already been done in 1884 by a Conference at Berlin ; for instance, it had been agreed that " spheres of influence " of European States in foreign lands should be defined, and that those who claimed territory on the coast-line must protect it effectually. Certain points suggested at Berlin were emphasised

and agreed to by all at the Hague. Military action was to be confined to the destruction of the enemy's power, no war was to be made on women or children, no mines laid on trade routes, no dum-dum bullets used. The proposal for a general disarmament was not considered practicable, but the use of a Court of Arbitration was encouraged. The number of nations represented at the Hague shows how world-wide now were the interests that had to be considered. Peace, indeed, seemed only a dream, especially as Germany still pursued the policy of Bismarck, expressed in his words : "The Pike in the European pool prevent us from becoming Carp; but we must fulfil the designs of Providence by making ourselves so strong that the Pike can do no more than amuse us." Still, therefore, the nations had to bow under burdens heavy to be borne, seeing no other relief than the hope that the increase of their own load might perhaps discourage their enemies.

The marvellous development, after 1870, of German trade and industry, the rapid growth of her population, and the great increase of her mercantile marine, aroused in the German Empire, towards the close of the last century, a keen desire to possess a powerful navy, and a Navy League was formed with the object of converting the whole nation to a belief in its future on the water. Branches of this League were scattered over the country, cinema pictures were sent about telling of the glories of the fleet, children and teachers from the schools were taken on holiday visits to the great dockyards; about £25,000 was spent on preaching this "big navy" gospel. Everything possible was done to prepare the people

to submit to the burden that they would be called upon to bear, if the programme of ship-building, prepared by the heads of the Naval Department, was to be carried through. For the German Navy is essentially a new creation. The small naval force maintained by Prussia previous to 1866, became, after that year, the navy of the North German Federation, and of the German Empire after 1870, but it was still quite secondary to the army, and under the control of army generals. It was not till 1897 that the position of First Naval Minister was given to a man bred a seaman, that is to Von Tirpitz, the present State Secretary of the Admiralty, to whom, more than to anyone else, the German Navy owes its present position. When only Chief of the Staff at Kiel, Von Tirpitz turned his attention to the creation and perfection of a torpedo service, and when he obtained the power he devoted all his energies to the formation of a great navy, that should give Germany the command of the sea. For though the "bitter need" of protecting her trade was given by Germany as the ostensible reason for her naval expansion, her real desire was to be strong enough to demand with a high hand what she calls her share of the world, or her place in the sun.

Germany's growing trade and population require, she says, colonies to which her exports can be freely sent, and from which she may get such raw material as she may require, and the new gospel, so much preached of late in the country, that "might is right," impels her to look for these colonies without any regard to the rights of her neighbours. Various incidents, before 1914, had shown what line of

conduct might be expected from Germany, when her naval programme was complete. Kiao-chou, as we shall see, was wrested from China to form a great naval base on the Pacific; Russia was compelled, by the threat of war, to look on sullenly at the annexation of Bosnia and the Herzegovina by Austria; and in 1911, when the French advanced on Fez, the Kaiser's gunboat *Panther* dropped anchor in Agadir on the Moroccan coast, and only withdrew owing to the steady support given to France by England, for in 1911 Germany was not quite ready for war. Every possible circumstance too has been taken hold of to excite jealousy of England's naval supremacy, and so to rouse popular feeling as to obtain the grants necessary for the creation of a large and powerful navy. Thus the arrest of a German steamer by the British in 1900, on the charge of carrying contraband of war to the Boers, was used to inflame the feeling of the country against Great Britain, and to obtain the passing of an extended Naval Defence Act. By this measure it was proposed to spend £74,000,000 on naval construction, and £20,000,000 on naval dockyards, so that by 1917 Germany might possess a fleet of thirty-eight battleships, with a proportionate number of cruisers and smaller vessels; and in 1907 the supplementary Naval Bill was passed, which raised the yearly output of battleships from four to six. What burdens the nation voluntarily undertook, to become a great sea power, may be judged from the fact that naval expenditure in 1898 was £6,000,000, while in 1913 it had risen to £23,000,000.

In 1914 Germany, having completed her prepara-

tions by land and sea, sought a cause for war, and repudiated her treaty obligations. Austria was once again made her cat's paw, and Europe was plunged into terrible and devastating war. The circumstances that led to it will be given more fully in the next chapter.

CHAPTER XXII

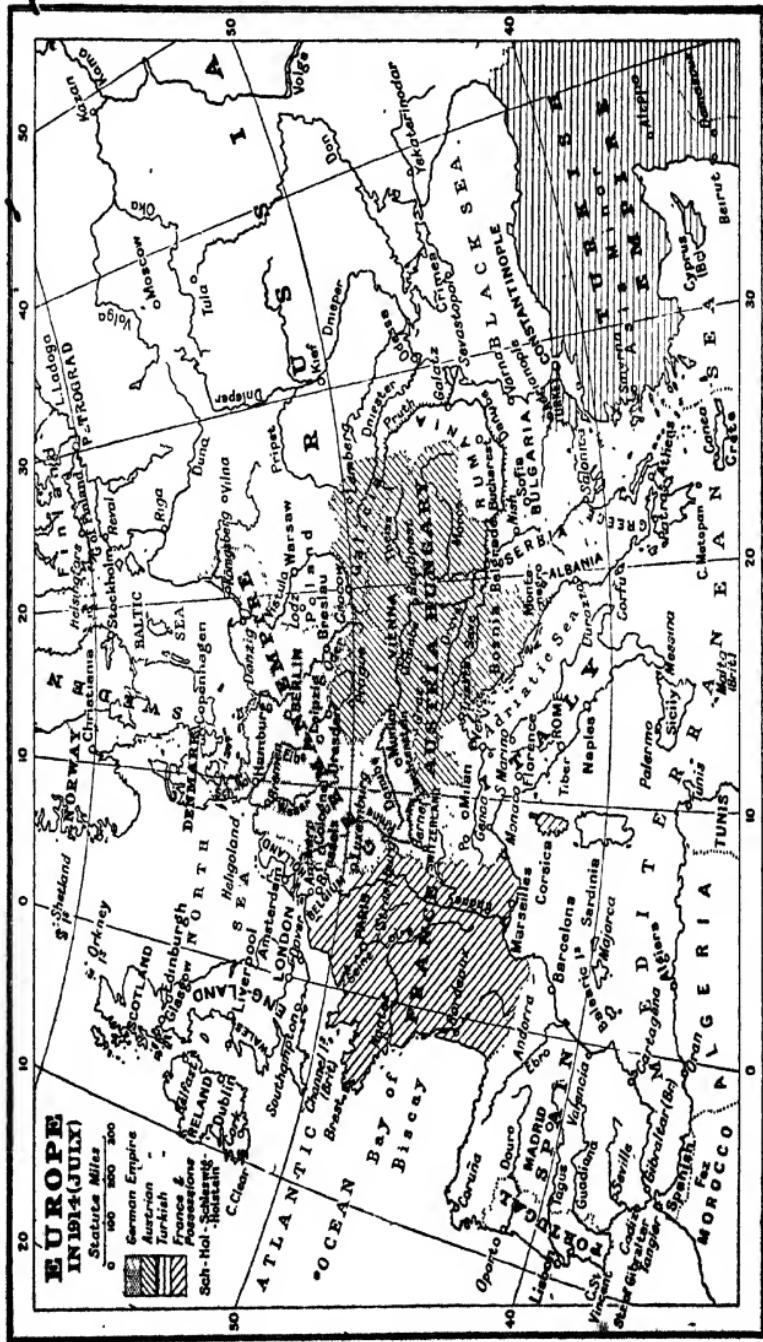
THE BALKAN STATES

1878-1914

THE Treaty of Berlin did not prove in any direction a permanent settlement of the Eastern Question, and within a few years almost every Power and State which had been a party to the treaty had broken some of its provisions. The Porte would not surrender the ports promised to Montenegro till compelled by force; Thessaly and Epirus were not ceded to Greece till 1881, and it was only after a struggle that Austria accomplished the occupation of Bosnia and the Herzegovina. In Bulgaria, too, troubles soon arose. Prince Alexander of Battenberg, son of Prince Alexander of Hesse and nephew of the Tsar Alexander II, was chosen as first Prince of Bulgaria; he was a fine soldier, but was young and without tact and political aptitude.

Raised to his high position by Russian influence, he was at first inclined to follow the dictates of that Power, but soon tiring of the imperious conduct of the Russian generals sent to assist him, he put himself at the head of a national and anti-

Russian party, dismissed his former advisers, and in 1885, when Eastern Roumelia declared its union with Bulgaria, he took the title of Prince of the two Bulgarias. Greece and Serbia, Bulgaria's two rivals in the Balkans, were indignant, and demanded territorial compensation, King Milan of Serbia even invading Bulgaria in support of his demand. His troops, however, were quickly driven back by the raw Bulgarian levies owing to the fine military qualities of Prince Alexander, and Serbia was saved from invasion only by the intervention of Austria. But the war, though successful, brought its difficulties, and certain officers in the Bulgarian army did not consider that the Prince had sufficiently recognised their services. Russia, who had never forgiven Alexander for freeing himself from her tutelage, took advantage of their discontent to incite them against the Prince. At two o'clock one morning in August 1886 some of them entered the palace, forced Alexander, by pointing their revolvers at his head, to sign his abdication, and then carried him off into Austrian territory. The national party were naturally indignant at this kidnapping of their prince, and Alexander returned to Sofia in triumph, but finding the position too difficult with Russia hostile, he shortly afterwards, and this time of his own will, resigned the crown. Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg, a grandson of Louis Philippe, was elected in his place in spite of the Tsar's disapproval, and for nearly seven years his great minister Stambouloff, a convinced opponent of Russia, remained in office; but when, in 1895, Stambouloff was murdered in the street, Ferdinand,



weary of what seemed a hopeless struggle, made his peace with Russia.

In Serbia, King Milan continued to reign till 1889, when he abdicated in favour of his son Alexander, a lad of thirteen. A regency was established, but in 1893 the young king suddenly ordered the arrest of his regents at his dinner-table, and proclaimed himself of age. He was opposed to the radical party in the State, and after a time took such strong measures against them that they determined on a revolution; in 1903 the conspirators, officers who had of course sworn fealty to their king, occupied the approaches to the palace, exploded the door with dynamite and, finding the young king and his wife hiding in a cupboard, brutally stabbed them to death and flung the two mangled bodies out of the window. A few weeks later, Peter Karageorgevic, who had married a daughter of the King of Montenegro, was chosen king. He may have known nothing of the murderous plans of the conspirators, but he certainly profited by them, and, owing to his keeping the murderers about his person, Austria and Russia alone of the Great Powers recognised him till their retirement in 1906, when Great Britain consented to send a minister to Belgrade for the first time since the assassination of King Alexander.

The history of Montenegro since 1880 under its able King Nicholas is a happier tale. Not only have roads been made, railroads opened, agriculture encouraged and a standing army established, but in 1905 the people were granted parliamentary institutions, and the same year saw the meeting of

the first Montenegrin Assembly. The country is connected too by marriage with one of the Great Powers, for the present Queen of Italy is one of King Nicholas's daughters. With the other Balkan States Montenegro took part in the war against Turkey, 1912.

Roumania has had a like prosperous career under its late ruler, Charles of Hohenzollern Sigmaringen. When the war broke out in 1914, he as a Hohenzollern naturally sympathised with Germany, but finding his people strongly in favour of the Triple Entente he adopted a policy of neutrality, and kept it honourably till he died, in the winter of the same year.

The years 1894 and 1895 are memorable for the awful atrocities perpetrated among the Armenians by the Turks, but though much indignation was expressed nothing was done to help the wretched Armenians, chiefly owing to want of agreement among the Great Powers. Russia and Austria refused to stir, while Germany, anxious to obtain concessions in Asia Minor, actually supported the Sultan. France and England indeed protested, but unless backed by force protestations have never had much effect on the Porte, and just at that moment the affairs of Crete absorbed the attention of politicians. That island had long desired union with Greece, and the feeling in its favour at Athens was so violent that the King was forced to declare war on Turkey. He did not want war, nor for the matter of that did Turkey, and both probably hoped the Powers would prevent it; but the influence of the German Emperor, who was bitterly opposed to Greece and whose

influence at Constantinople had been rapidly increasing, prevented any overtures for peace: The war was disastrous for Greece, and at length the Powers intervened and peace was made, 1897. The next year Prince George of Greece was made Governor of Crete, and when eight years later he resigned he was succeeded by another Greek. In 1908, excited by the news of the annexation of Bosnia and the Herzegovina by Austria, who feared lest the Young Turk party who had just risen to power should demand that her occupation of those provinces should cease, and also by the declaration of Bulgarian independence, Crete proclaimed its union with Greece.

The following year the Young Turk party deposed the Sultan Abd-ul Hamid, and put his brother Mohammed V on the throne in his place.

In 1911 war broke out between Turkey and Italy. France had advanced in Morocco, Germany had received compensation for this advance in the French Congo; Italy also grew impatient for a share in North Africa, and at last, determined to wait no longer, declared her intention of taking possession of Tripoli. This was a great blow to Berlin, who wanted a strong Turkey wholly under German influence, and German plans were still further upset when the Balkan States, seeing in the war between Turkey and Italy their own opportunity, sank for a time their differences with each other and formed a league against the Turks, 1912. Completely successful in the war, they unfortunately fell out over the division of the spoils. Serbia expected to keep Albania, which she had occupied,

but to this both Italy and Austria, who equally desired it, objected, and Serbia then demanded a large share of Macedonia to make up. To this Bulgaria demurred, stirred up to protest by Austria, who was anxious for her own ends to spread discord in the Balkans, and it was with difficulty that an unsatisfactory peace was concluded, 1913, which left keen resentment in all Slav countries, failing as it did to satisfy their national aspirations. A time of great tension followed. Germany and Austria were bent on breaking up the Balkan League and securing their own supremacy in that peninsula, for Germany had all this while been steadily pushing on the Bagdad railway, and had obtained permission to build a branch line from Damascus on, eastward of the Dead Sea, to Mecca. With a strong Turkey controlled by Germany, with subservient Balkan States and the Bagdad railway pushed to the Persian Gulf, she would have the power at any time of striking either at India or Egypt. Austria, compelled to withdraw from the Sanjak of Novi Bazar, was eager to dominate Serbia as now her shortest and easiest route to Salonica lay through that country, and she at once began a tariff war, refusing to take Serbia's exports. Then, when on June 28, 1914, two Bosnian Serbs murdered the Archduke Franz Ferdinand, the heir to the Austrian throne, the war party at Vienna at once used the national anger at the crime to plan forcible intervention in Serbia, which country they accused of complicity in the murder. Germany, who knew that her ally had no great sympathy with her dreams of world power, was delighted at this

warlike mood, and not only gave her assurance of support in all measures against Serbia, but effectually prevented the mediation of other countries, and finally, by her ultimatum to Russia to disarm the forces she had mobilised on hearing, of Austria's hostile attitude to Serbia, she brought on Europe all the horrors of war.

CHAPTER XXIII

EUROPE IN ASIA

THE History of Europe has in the last century become, in a sense, the history of the world, since some three-quarters of the globe is now under the sway of one or another of the European peoples. With the countries of America it is impossible in this small volume to deal, but a few words must be said of European advance in Asia and Africa.

In Central Asia, the foreign policy of Russia during the latter part of the nineteenth century was one of rapid expansion eastward, till her dominion now touches the frontiers of Persia and Afghanistan. She obtained a firm hold on the Caucasus by the cession of Kars and Batoum in the Treaty of Berlin, advanced far into Central Asia, gained control over the island of Saghalin, and obtained a large cession of territory in China, acquiring the Manchurian coast down to the bounds of Korea, 1860. Russia, in fact, expanded with little expenditure of blood or money from the Ural Mountains to the Sea of Japan, and in 1898 she obtained the lease of Port Arthur from China, which gave her what she so much desired, an ice-free port on the Pacific. The Trans-Siberian Railway was begun in 1891 and opened in 1901. The

difficulties of its construction were enormous, and the track is in constant danger from sudden floods and thaws, but the advantages it brings are very great, for it has developed trade by opening up the Siberian coalfields and bringing Siberian produce and Chinese tea to the European markets at cheap freights.

But about 1870 the approach of Russia to the frontier of Afghanistan caused uneasiness to English statesmen. England had no right to set any limit to the advance of Russia till it reached this point, since it was impelled by much the same causes as had led to the English approach to the Himalayas; but at this time Shere Ali, ruler of Afghanistan, alarmed by the rapid advance of the great Western Power, sought earnestly for a closer alliance with England and for the promise that Russia should be considered an enemy by England, if she committed aggression on the frontier of Afghanistan. He was, as has been said, like "the earthen pipkin between two iron pots," and he felt the need of entering into close relations with one or other of his great European neighbours, and decidedly preferred Great Britain. He was a strong and capable ruler, and it was a pity that fear of undertaking new responsibilities prevented any action on England's part, save the giving of some vague promises of moral support. Shere Ali was bitterly disappointed, and from this time began to listen more and more to Russian agents, though with a little care he might still have been won back to his old friendly understanding. Unfortunately in 1874 Disraeli became Prime Minister, and with his

incurable suspicion of Russia, he determined, in spite of strong protest from the Viceroy and his whole Council, to press upon Shere Ali the admission into his country of a British Resident, a condition the Ameer had always refused even to discuss. A change of Viceroys soon followed, and Lord Lytton, in complete accord with Disraeli, determined to force the appointment of a Resident, though opposed by several members of his Council and though the Ameer protested that he could not protect such an envoy from the fanaticism of his own people, and that if he received a British envoy he must also receive a Russian. There is no doubt that by treaty the Ameer had a perfect right to decline to receive the envoy, and he naturally wished above all things to maintain his territory free from the presence of either Russian or English emissaries. When the British envoy reached the Afghan frontier, he was firmly but courteously refused entrance to the Ameer's territory. War followed, and Afghanistan was very shortly in the hands of the British. Shere Ali fled and soon after died, and his son Yakub Khan was recognised in his place, but compelled to admit a British officer. Sir Louis Cavagnari was then sent to Cabul, only to be murdered by the Afghan army, which rose in revolt at the establishment of the English Embassy. How far Yakub Khan was implicated has never been ascertained, but he probably sympathised with his people. Once more a British army defeated the Afghans and entered Cabul, and Abdurrahman, a nephew of the late Shere Ali, was placed on the throne, a capable and independent Ameer, who quite understood that it

was to England's advantage to keep his country intact. He was not required to receive a British Resident, but was granted aid in money and arms, and in 1887 the frontier line between Afghanistan and Russia was satisfactorily settled. Abdurrahman died in 1901, his cordial relations with the British Government unimpaired, and was succeeded by his son the present Ameer, with whom those friendly relations have been continued. In 1907 difficulties in this part of the Far East were again settled by a Convention with Russia, whereby both countries agreed to respect the political integrity of Persia, England acknowledging Russian influence in northern Persia, while Russia acknowledged Great Britain's position in the south.

In 1894-1895 a war between China and Japan resulted in the complete victory of the Japanese, but just as peace terms were arranged between the combatants, including the cession of the Liao Tung Peninsula to Japan, Russia, Germany and France stepped in and objected to the cession, on the ground that any foreign Power possessing Port Arthur would dominate Peking. Japan was compelled to yield, and saw in 1897 the harbour of Kiao-chou with the island of Tsingtao taken possession of by Germany, in retaliation for the murder of two German missionaries. As their deaths were also avenged by a large indemnity, the re-building of a chapel destroyed during the riot, the repayment of expenses incurred by Germany in the occupation of Kiao-chou, and the infliction of the severest penalties on the actual murderers, as well as the dismissal from office of the Governor of

the Province, their murder was certainly fruitful to Germany. In the present war Japan, by the capture of Kiao-chou and Tsingtao, has taken her revenge.

Russia about the same time asked leave to winter her fleet at Port Arthur; that gained, she demanded a lease of the port, which she obtained, 1898—that very port which was refused to Japan on the ground that it dominated Peking. England then demanded a lease of Wei-hai-wei and the accession of territory on the mainland opposite Hong-Kong for such time as Russia was in possession of Port Arthur, while France demanded the port of Kwang-chow-wan.

At the beginning of the present century, Japan, who naturally looked with suspicion on Russia's advance and her evident desire for a port in Korea, addressed an ultimatum to that country proposing to recognise Manchuria as Russia's sphere of influence, provided Russia would recognise Japan's influence as paramount in Korea. No reply having been received, a war commenced in 1904, which ended in the complete success of Japan, owing chiefly to Russia's difficulties at home, and a treaty was signed by which Russia agreed to evacuate Manchuria, to cede the Liao Tung Peninsula, including Port Arthur, and also the southern half of the island of Saghalin to Japan, and to recognise her influence in Korea.

Throughout the nineteenth century France was engaged at intervals in building up an Asiatic Empire in the East, as a counterbalance to our Indian Empire, and in 1885 she acquired a protectorate over Anam and Tonkin. Fear of being

forestalled by her in Burma, added to the difficulty of keeping any peace with King Thibaw, a despot of the worst type, led in the same year to the English war in Burma, ending in the annexation of that country. In 1893 part of the kingdom of Siam was occupied by France, but guarantees were at the same time given by her as to the integrity of Siam proper.

CHAPTER XXIV

EUROPE IN AFRICA

IN 1841, as we saw in an earlier chapter, Mehemet Ali was confirmed in the hereditary governorship of Egypt by the European Powers, and he on the whole justified their policy, creating a new era of prosperity for the country and allowing no oppression but his own. The rule of Said, one of the best of his successors, is memorable for the concession that allowed Ferdinand Lesseps to begin the cutting of the Suez Canal, April 1859, the spot at which the enterprise was started being called Port Said, in memory of the then ruler of the country. Said's successor, Ismail, who obtained from the Sultan the title of Khedive and practical independence, was a reckless spendthrift. "There is nothing in the financial history of any country," said Lord Milner, "from the remotest ages to the present time, to equal his carnival of extravagance and oppression." The canal was opened in 1869, and in 1875 Disraeli, hearing that Ismail was negotiating in Paris for the mortgage of his only unpledged asset, the canal shares that had been originally allotted to his predecessors, borrowed £4,000,000 on his own authority and bought the shares, his action being ratified by Parliament. When Ismail, in 1876, could no longer

borrow even at ruinous rates, he suspended payment of his treasury bills, and in 1878 Great Britain joined France in demanding a full inquiry into the financial condition of Egypt. On Ismail's refusing to submit to the ministers appointed for this task, the Great Powers demanded his deposition from the Sultan, and his son Tewfik was put in his place. An Anglo-French control was established and matters all seemed satisfactory, till in 1881, an insurrection broke out headed by Arabi Bey, who took on himself the office of War Minister. Tewfik being quite unable to deal with the rising, the French and English governments advised Arabi's dismissal, and the answer was a massacre of Europeans in the streets of Alexandria. Arabi then proceeded to throw up earthworks, whereupon the British fleet bombarded Alexandria, and it was determined to land troops to enforce order. England invited the co-operation of France, but the French government had its hands full at that time in Tonkin, and refused the offer. England, therefore, alone conducted the campaign, the final action of which took place at Tel-el-Kebir, 1882. Arabi's forces were speedily routed, and he himself was one of the first to fly. He was taken prisoner, tried and exiled to Ceylon. The dual control thus came to an end, and an English financial adviser was appointed to the Egyptian government, French protests being disregarded, and until an agreement was come to with France in 1904, that country remained, more or less persistently, hostile to England.

While the British were engaged in crushing Arabi's revolt, a leader arose in the Soudan 1881, claiming

to be the Messiah or Prophet foretold by Mahomet, and called by his followers El Mahdi, or the Leader. He proclaimed it his mission to conquer Egypt, overthrow the Turk and convert the world, and thousands flocked to his standard. England disclaimed all responsibility in the Soudan and the Egyptian forces sent against him were miserably insufficient and were cut to pieces. The British advisers of the Khedive counselled the entire evacuation of the Soudan, but public opinion in England demanded that the loyal Egyptian garrisons in the country must be first withdrawn. General Gordon in response to a popular cry was appointed to the impossible task ; he had been successful in the Soudan when governor there before, and ministers failed to realise that his past popularity had been with the slaves and victims of oppression and not with the ruling class now represented by the Mahdi. Gordon was appointed Governor-General of the Soudan and arrived at Khartoum February 18, 1884. His qualities were those of a knight-errant rather than those of a statesman, and he seems never to have had any clear idea as to what he could do.

By May 1884 Berber and the Bahr-el-Ghazal province had fallen into the hands of the Mahdi, and all communication between Khartoum and Egypt was cut off. A relief expedition from England arrived too late ; it pushed its way to Khartoum, but Gordon had already been murdered.

The Mahdi died five months after the fall of Khartoum, and the Khalifa who succeeded him was defeated by an Egyptian army and was content to remain quiet for some years. He made his capital

at Omdurman, and carried on from there a rule of terror and savagery.

At length Lord Cromer, the British Minister in Egypt, felt that the Egyptian army, which had been completely reorganised under Sir Herbert Kitchener, was in a fit state to attempt the reconquest of the Soudan. Kitchener prepared his whole advance; a desert railway was constructed from Wadi Halfa towards Berber, and in April 1898 he attacked and destroyed an entrenched camp of 12,000 dervishes. The desert railway was rapidly pushed forward and in September he captured Omdurman, the stronghold of Mahdism. The Khalifa fled, but was killed a year later by a force under Sir Reginald Wingate, and the Soudan was recovered.

It was at this time that what is known as the Fashoda incident occurred, an incident now almost forgotten in the friendly relations that have since been established between England and France, but which threatened for the moment to be serious. During the siege of Omdurman, the captain of a steamer brought news that at Fashoda he had been fired upon by white men, bearing a strange flag. Kitchener divined the truth, namely that a French expedition under Major Marchand must have made its way from the Congo to the White Nile at Fashoda, with the aim of annexing that district for France.

For two years Marchand with a brave little band had battled with rapids, swamps, forests and mountains as an "explorer," and finally at Fashoda had hoisted the tricolor. Having received the news the Sirdar and his force steamed up to Fashoda. Kitchener congratulated the major on his triumph

of exploration, but claimed that he must plant the flag of the Khedive at Fashoda. Major Marchand declared that he would hoist it himself over the village. "Over the fort, Major," replied the Sirdar, "I cannot permit it," exclaimed the Major, "as the French flag is there." The Sirdar pointed to the force behind him. The two officers agreed that the matter should be referred to their respective governments, and parted with courteous words, and Kitchener returned to Khartoum, leaving a force behind him to bar the road in future to geographical explorers with flags. The matter was settled in a friendly way, it being agreed that the overthrow of the Mahdi brought under the Egyptian flag all the lands which that leader had for a time occupied.

Better days were now in store for Egypt, thanks to the energy and wisdom of one of England's statesmen, Lord Cromer, who by great and far-reaching reforms raised the whole country from a state of ruin to one of prosperity. The most important work was concerned with irrigation. Lands were drained, floods regulated, dams constructed and whole new districts were brought under cultivation. By the end of the century Britain had given to Egypt a fertile country, a reformed army and good schools.

Before the difficulties of Britain in the Soudan had as yet begun, Europe had realised that nearly all parts even of tropical Africa had a commercial value. The opening of the Suez Canal had brought its east coast within easy reach of Europe, and discoveries on the Upper Nile, the Congo and the Niger opened ways into the centre. Thus by the

year 1880 everything favoured the "partition" of Africa. About that time a very energetic colonial party arose in Germany. The population and industrial activity of that country had immensely increased, and with extending trade the desire naturally arose to secure colonies, to gain spheres of influence and coaling stations, and to get as many trading advantages as possible beyond the seas. The British at first paid little attention to Germany's advance in Africa, and in 1884 the German flag was hoisted at Angra Pequeña, which had till then figured as a British settlement even on German maps; soon after Togoland was declared to be under German protection. The Cameroons were next annexed, though the respect felt by native chiefs for British law was shown by a request of five of the "kings" that they might have it introduced into their lands. Britain lost her opportunity. Germany was more awake, both there and in East Africa where in 1890 German authority extended from Cape Delgado to the river Wami. In the Niger Delta fortunately the British African Company forestalled her.

In a Conference at Berlin, 1885, principles were laid down by international authority to put a limit to the scramble for Africa. It was decided to recognise the International African Association as an independent state under the title of the Congo Free State. The trade and navigation of the Congo and the Niger were declared free. The supervision of the former was entrusted to an international commission, while the latter was placed under French and British protection. An agreement was come to as to future

annexations and spheres of influence, and in 1890 a further agreement was made between England and Germany, defining their respective spheres of influence in East and in South-West Africa.

The colonial efforts of Italy have been in the direction of the Red Sea and in Somaliland, and so far have produced little else than disappointment and disaster. In the annexation of Somaliland she came into contact with Britain and a treaty in 1891 regulated their relations. Since then Tripoli has been added by Italy to her African possessions.

French colonisation in Africa has proceeded by rapid strides since 1870. The population under her sway has increased tenfold. After the annexation of Tunis her power expanded southwards, from Algeria and Tunis, and eastwards from Senegal, till a French Empire has been established that reaches eastward to the Soudan and southward to the Ivory Coast and Nigeria. Madagascar was added to her possessions in 1895. Treaties between France and England, 1890 and 1898, fixed their respective spheres of influence.

In South Africa the possessions of Great Britain were greatly extended during the same period. Griqualand West was annexed in 1871, the Zulu War of 1879 was followed by the annexation of that country in 1887, Walfisch Bay had been occupied in 1878, but the English Government refused to annex the whole coast line as far north as the Portuguese dominions, with the result that Germans established themselves there, and threatened, by joining hands with the Boers, to enclose the British south of the Orange River. Access to the

terior was vital to the economic progress of the Cape, and Bechuanaland was made a crown colony in 1885 and annexed to the Cape ten years later. But British extension northward was the work of Cecil Rhodes, and the great country of Rhodesia is the result of his courageous energy. Unfortunately the Transvaal, under the guidance of President Kruger, failed to recognise the common interests of all the South African states, and was mortified at being stayed in its projects of expansion. Long disputes as to the status of the Uitlanders or English settlers in the Transvaal led at last to the Boer War of 1899, and the Transvaal and Orange Free State were annexed in 1900. Full self-government was granted to the Transvaal in 1906 and to the Orange Free State the following year. Two years later, in 1909, the Federation of South Africa was accomplished, and Lord Gladstone was appointed first Governor-General.

CHAPTER XXV

DISCOVERY AND INVENTION

THE conditions of life have been greatly changed during the nineteenth century by discovery and invention. The introduction of machinery led to the rapid development of the factory system, and the constant introduction of mechanical contrivances has simplified domestic life. Now our houses may be cleaned and our sewing done by machinery. The first effective lockstitch sewing-machine was made by Elias Howe of Massachusetts, 1846. First-class bicycles, which have now become almost universal, could not, for want of proper tools, have been made a century ago under a cost of over £100. The type-writer has revolutionised the work in offices. Our daily bread has been cheapened and made more abundant by the use of machinery in agriculture. In the great wheat-fields of America and Australia, harvesting by machinery has been brought to such perfection that a machine is in use which, by one operation, reaps the grain, threshes, winnows, and delivers it into sacks.

Among the most useful of small inventions during the century has been that of matches, invented by a chemist, John Walker, in 1827; by 1840 these had completely replaced the flint and steel.

LIGHTING

In the nineteenth century three new departures have been made in lighting. First, the improvement of lamps. The use of lamps is very ancient; some have been found in the old Egyptian and Etruscan tombs which differ little from those in use to-day, but they received a new lease of life when the principle of the Argand burner and chimney was worked out in 1830. Petroleum was known as early as the thirteenth century, when the traveller Marco Polo wrote of a natural spring of oil on the shores of the Caspian "not good for food, but good to burn." Lighting by petroleum has, during the last century, been greatly improved, especially in America in the Kitson oil lamps. This system has been adapted for lighthouse use, as it gives a light peculiarly fog-piercing.

The history of gas-lighting belongs to the nineteenth century, though as early as 1739 the possibility of extracting gas from coal had been discovered. In 1804 it was first manufactured and laid about in pipes, and in 1813 Westminster Bridge was so successfully lighted that the use of gas spread to every town and kingdom, not only for lighting but for cooking and heating.

Towards the end of the nineteenth century it seemed likely that gas might have to give way to electric light, when a German scientist, Welsbach, brought out the "mantle" which bears his name. The gas heats the mantle and causes it to glow very brightly. The Welsbach burner with its mantle gives us with a smaller expenditure of gas a better

light, with more light rays and less heat rays, than does the ordinary burner. Further improvements have been introduced by Mr. W. Sugg, known as the high-pressure system; this is very powerful and very economical, each burner developing 300-candle power; it is largely used in factories and railway stations. Acetylene gas, a chemically prepared coal gas, emits a shaft of dazzling light, and is now widely used in cycle and motor lamps, in country houses in England, and in village streets in Germany. The electric light, now in very general use, is opening out new fields of scientific exploration.

STEAM AND LOCOMOTION

The application of steam to purposes of locomotion has brought about one of the greatest revolutions in history, for when it was discovered that heavily laden trains could be drawn in this way, engineers admitted no impossibilities. During the century thousands of miles of railways have been constructed; tunnels for them have been bored through mountains and under rivers; they go round and round the foundations of our great cities, and overhead on bridges of steel and iron, and to the summits of high mountains. The first locomotive engine, "Puffing Billy," was constructed by George Stephenson, 1814, and the first passenger railway was between Liverpool and Manchester; the speed of these early trains was about twenty miles an hour, now it has reached sixty. It is possible to-day to travel the greater part of the way by rail across

all the continents; the great Siberian Railway alone, completed 1901, from Petrograd to Vladivostock or Port Arthur, is over 6000 miles long.

In 1811 the first steamboat was built in America, and in 1833 the Canadians built the first steamship that crossed the Atlantic. This it did in twenty-two days. Now it is done in five or six days, and all the great vessels are driven by steam.

THE MOTOR-CAR

The motor-car has, during the twentieth century, been gradually winning its way to its present useful position. There had been successful attempts made in this direction at the end of the eighteenth century, but they were put a stop to by the French Revolution. Between 1800 and 1836 many steam vehicles for road traffic appeared from time to time, the earliest of which were fitted with legs as well as driving-wheels. A trip was made by one of these through Reading and Devizes at the rate of six miles an hour. In 1830 an improved motor, which travelled at the rate of thirty-five miles an hour, attracted so much attention that a Parliamentary Commission was appointed to report on horseless carriages. The report was altogether favourable, and all seemed to be going well, when the way was blocked, chiefly by the jealousy of the railway companies, who were afraid of lessening their profits, and by the fear of some of the members lest the success of the motors should interfere with the demand for horses. A law was passed, 1836, which made road steamers useless, for it enacted that in future every

road locomotive should be preceded, at a distance of 100 yards, by a man on foot carrying a red flag, to warn passengers of its approach. This foolish law put a stop, for a time, to the development of steam carriages in England. Fortunately, however, the French went forward, and after the Franco-Prussian War improvements succeeded one another until the great step forward was taken by Daimler, a German engineer, who introduced the petrol gas-motor. Public attention was called to motors by races, the most famous being that from Paris to Bordeaux, in which the Daimler showed itself supreme. There was now general enthusiasm, the foolish restriction was withdrawn, a new and important industry was started, motor journals were published, and French and Germans forgot their old animosities in a common enthusiasm for automobiles and organised a race between Paris and Berlin, 1901. The usefulness of the motor was proved once for all in the South African War. In 1909 nearly 128 miles were run in an hour just to show what could be done. Motors are now worked by steam, petrol and electricity, and improvements are continuing.

ELECTRICITY

Men have been aware for ages of the existence of electricity, and for long depended on its spark for the lighting of their fires, but it was not till the nineteenth century that they found out something of its power, and the possibility of directing its current. The discoveries and inventions since

made in connection with it we owe chiefly to Thomas Edison, the Wizard of the West. In 1837, as the result of the efforts of many simultaneous workers, the first electric telegraph was established; its earliest use was for railway signalling, but it soon became general. In 1851 a sub-line was laid from Dover to Calais, and in 1856 a company was formed to lay an electric cable across the Atlantic from Ireland to Newfoundland, a distance of 2500 miles. The first cables failed, but in 1866 many difficulties were conquered, and sixteen lines of cables, belonging to different nations, now cross the Atlantic. During these years of improvement a new ambition arose, namely, that of making the ether in the air the conductor of messages; scientists were developing "wireless telegraphy," and on December 12, 1901, William Marconi, a young Italian, gave the secret to the world. There was yet much to be done, and for some years scientists and inventors, English, French, German and Italian, were at work in this direction. With the help of improved instruments, Marconi gradually increased the distance over which he sent signals through space, till he was able to transmit them to America, over 2000 miles. The value of this invention, as regards the safety of those at sea, cannot be over-estimated.

THE TELEPHONE

As a result of the numerous experimental researches for the continuous improvement of the electric telegraph, the telephone, an instrument capable of reproducing the human voice, was

invented. At first telephones could be successfully worked only for short distances, but power has been steadily increased, and now a telephone is in operation between New York and Chicago, cities about 1000 miles apart. The system is in very general use in America, not only in cities, but in thinly populated parts, where lonely farmhouses are connected with a central station. In Norway the telephone is more in use than the telegraph, and is found in the little hidden hamlets of the fiords. Switzerland too is very forward in all electrical matters. The telephone is seen at its best at Buda-Pesth in Austro-Hungary, where in 1893 a telephone "newsteller" was founded. News is collected at a central office; it is printed by lithography on strips of paper; these are given to men with powerful and trained voices, called stentors, who read the contents to transmitting offices, whence the news flies, in all directions, to the ears of the subscribers. The telephone offices are connected by wire with churches, theatres and public halls, drawing from them, by means of special receivers, the sounds that are going on there, and transmitting them again to thousands of people.

M. Germain, a French electrician, has lately made improvements, leading to a loud-speaking telephone, so successfully, that words transmitted by it could be heard in the open air fifteen yards from the receiver.

THE PHONOGRAPH AND GRAMOPHONE

The researches of scientific men in the realm of sound have further resulted in the discovery

of the phonograph and gramophone. These are mechanical inventions by which the sounds of the human voice can be stored up and reproduced thousands of times; so far they have been chiefly used for purposes of entertainment, but probably they have a serious future in store, and they have added considerably to the industry of the country. For these inventions we are chiefly indebted to Mr. Edison, who in 1876 made known the results of his experiments.

PHOTOGRAPHY

Increased knowledge of the composition of light and improvements in the production of "artificial light" have led to the development of photography. Means of copying paintings on glass by exposure to light had been found in 1802, but no important results were obtained till 1839, when M. Daguerre perfected the process to which his name has been given; the first Daguerreotypes were beautiful but costly, and were superseded by cheaper methods. By 1850 it had become possible to photograph with great rapidity moving crowds, breaking waves, even a bullet in the air and a flash of lightning. The art has proved of great value to students of nature, astronomers and historians, giving us, as it does, the power to see men and things as they actually exist. Efforts to get results by photography in natural colours are beginning to meet with success.

X-RAYS

One of the most wonderful discoveries in connection with light and photography is that by

Professor Röntgen of Würzburg, 1896. He first investigated certain rays which are produced by a special form of chemically treated electrical current, and found that the action of these rays in or around some fluorescent substance caused it to become intensely luminous. But this luminosity has different properties from ordinary light, inasmuch as things which are transparent or opaque to it are not the same as those to which we usually apply the terms; for instance, some kinds of glass are opaque to the X-rays, while paper is so transparent that they will pass through a book of 100 pages. As flesh and skin are transparent to them and bone opaque, and so the skeleton of a living man can be photographed; they have proved to be of enormous value in surgery. As Professor Röntgen felt that very little was as yet known about the newly discovered rays, he called them by the algebraic sign x . A little later the most valuable substance in the world, known as radium, which sends forth rays identical with the X-rays, was discovered by Madame Curie.

HEAT

Inventors of the twentieth century are trying to see their way to using directly the power of the sun by focusing its heat, an idea which probably had its origin in mirrors used as "burning glasses." The first genuine solar machine was the work of Ericsson, a Norwegian shipbuilder, and sun-motors of various kinds are working successfully in the dry, hot parts of America, where fuel is scarce and the sun shines almost all the year round.

The most famous was erected on a large ostrich farm in California by Dr. Calver, of Washington. Here there are huge frames of 1600 mirrors travelling on circular rails so that they may be brought to face the sun at all hours. The combined heat thus produced is enormous, great enough, we are told, to reduce to softness Russian iron that can resist our blast furnaces, and to bake bricks twenty times as rapidly and much more hardly than any kiln. The sun-motor is only just beginning its career.

TORPEDOES—SUBMARINES—EXPLOSIVES

The military attitude of Europe at the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth centuries has turned the attention of inventors to new kinds of warships and new methods of naval warfare. The warships of the nineteenth century are of a deadly kind, the use of high explosives being their marked feature. Torpedoes have been built by all the Great Powers. In 1873 Captain Lupius, of the Austrian navy, helped by Mr. Whitehead, a Swedish engineer, after two years' secret work, constructed his first torpedo; the British Government bought his patent rights. Further inventions followed in which Edison was active, and in the war between China and Japan, 1894, the importance of the torpedo was realised, though somewhat later, in the Russo-Japanese War, it was considered almost a failure; at that time many vessels were struck, but little damage done; mines, on the other hand, blew great battleships to absolute destruction in a few minutes. The description of what can be done with these terrible instruments is truly wonderful. A

dirigible torpedo, when once launched, can pursue its way in the required direction without external help; it contains its own steering apparatus and motive power, and can travel at great speed beneath the surface of the sea.

The idea of the submarine is a very ancient one revived, for recent excavations in the Ægean lead us to think that something of the sort was used 2000 years B.C. Attempts to construct a boat which should scuttle the enemy's boat from beneath were made with partial success frequently during the seventeenth century. In 1821 Captain Johnson, an American, designed a submersible vessel 100 feet long, which was to fetch Napoleon from St. Helena, but this expedition did not take place. Since the American Civil War there has been rapid development, by Americans, Germans, Swedes and French. In 1901 England launched her first real submarine, No. 1; this was followed by the A class, and then in rapid succession by B, C, D, E, F and G, each class containing some improvement on the last. The submarines now carry guns and are fitted with wireless telegraphy.

The inventions in artillery are far too numerous to detail here. Early in the nineteenth century the Powers of Europe were building enormous guns such as the "Woolwich infant," 1872, of 100 tons; some of these were mounted on the British defences in the Mediterranean, but so much destruction followed the tremendous concussion they caused that a number of smaller guns has been preferred, as able to carry the weight of metal projectiles with greater speed. Constant changes have been made

in the great gun factories of all nations in the manufacture of rifles, where the workmanship is so delicate that the error of the one-thousandth of an inch would render the part useless. Round shot and cannon balls have been superseded by the invention of shrapnel, a shell or case containing a number of balls and a small bursting charge. New explosives have been introduced by the inventive power of chemists ; of these the most destructive are cordite, melanite and lyddite.

MECHANICAL FLIGHT

During the nineteenth century, the dream of many ages has been realised, and flight through the air become possible. The first dirigible balloon was built in Paris 1852, but little progress was made from that time till the beginning of the twentieth century, when the possibilities that opened out with the introduction of the light petrol motor made progress rapid. In 1906 Santos Dumont made the first officially recorded European flight ; he remained for twenty-one seconds in the air and travelled 230 yards. French, Americans, Germans and English continued to conquer difficulties, and in 1908 the invention was taken up seriously, and schools of aviation opened. Whether the aeroplane will prove to be a useful engine of war is, at the present time, being tested.

SCIENTIFIC DISCOVERY

Very important discoveries for the prevention of disease and the diminution of suffering have been made in

the nineteenth century ; the leaders in this direction, to whom mankind owes an enormous debt of gratitude, are M. Louis Pasteur, Lord Lister and Dr. Simpson. Pasteur in 1848, as a result of his study in the subject of fermentations, introduced such improvements into methods of brewing, distilling, and wine-making, that he saved for France "more than enough to pay the indemnity of the Franco-Prussian War." Later, he took up the study of the silk-worm disease, which was destroying the silk trade of France, and was able to restore prosperity to that industry. He, and they who learned of him, discovered and proved that the germs which cause infective diseases can be cultivated, and isolated, studied, and tested, and that anti-toxins and vaccines can be made from them to fight against similar germs in the living body. To these men we owe the discovery of protective treatment against diphtheria, typhoid, malarial fever and tuberculosis ; and thousands over the whole world owe to them their life and health.

Lister worked for some time with Pasteur. He was much distressed, while a medical student at Glasgow, to see the suffering entailed by unhealthy wounds, and speculated on the reasons for their inflammation. Surgeons and patients alike dreaded operations in those days, as even trifling operations were liable to be followed by blood-poisoning and death. He discovered the cause of the inflammation, and this led to the aseptic treatment, namely, the sterilising of the skin, instruments, and all material brought into contact with the wound. Since his discovery amputations have been safely performed,

and wounds that before would have proved deadly have healed. He did for surgery what Pasteur did for medicine.

But perhaps he who has won most gratitude, because the benefit of his discovery has been almost universal, is Dr. Simpson, whose aim was to discover something that would deaden pain. When a trial in this direction was made in America, he was so absorbed that he could think of nothing else. When he first made known his belief that chloroform might answer the purpose, he was opposed on all sides, on the grounds that it would be dangerous to health, to morals, and to religion. He determined to experiment, and his two assistants who had volunteered to be experimented upon proved the efficacy of the chloroform by falling helpless under the table. The value of the discovery was soon seen, and he was welcomed as a member of nearly every medical society in Europe and America; under his bust in Westminster Abbey it is told that "to Simpson's genius and benevolence the world owes the blessing derived from the use of chloroform, and the relief of suffering." With these names of a few of those who have helped to make the century wonderful we close our history, gratefully recording the honour that is due to our patient thinkers and workers, as well as to the heroes of the battlefield.

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